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COMPLETE LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFACE

THE volume now offered to the public is the result of lifelong labors in the field of grammatical study. A profound conviction of the value of the classical languages in a course of liberal education and an earnest desire to aid the student in mastering the intricacies of the Latin tongue with as much ease and rapidity as is consistent with true scholarship have led to the preparation of the present work. The instruments of education must of course be readjusted from time to time to the ever-changing methods in school and college. Accordingly the prime object of this volume is to adapt the work of instruction to present methods and present needs. In view of the heavy demands now made on the time of classical teachers and students a special effort has been made to develop the practical side of grammar, to make it as helpful as possible to the teacher in the difficult task of explaining the force of involved constructions in Latin authors, and as helpful as possible to the learner in his early efforts to understand and appreciate thought in the strange garb of a complicated Latin sentence. Simplicity and clearness, ever of paramount importance in the work of the class-room, have received special attention.

Designed at once as a text-book for the class-room and a book of reference in study, this volume aims not only to present a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the Latin language for the benefit of the beginner, but also to make adequate provision for the needs of the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness in the choice of phraseology, and compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, I have endeavored to compress within the limits of a convenient manual an amount of carefully selected grammatical facts which would otherwise fill a much larger volume.

Syntax has received special attention. An attempt has been

made to exhibit as clearly as possible that remarkable system of laws which the genius of the Latin language has created for itself. Accordingly the leading principles of construction have been put in the form of definite rules or laws, and fully illustrated by carefully selected examples from Latin authors, a mode of treatment perfectly consistent with scientific accuracy, and sanctioned by the general experience of teachers as in the highest degree helpful to the pupil. Moreover, to secure convenience of reference and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these laws of the language after having been separately discussed are presented in a body at the close of the syntax.

A special effort has been made to simplify and explain the difficult and intricate subject of the subjunctive. The ordinary constructions of that mood in simple sentences and in independent clauses are first stated and illustrated with great fulness to give the pupil a clear idea of its distinctive nature and use, and thus to prepare him to understand the process by which the mood passes from these simple independent uses to the more difficult dependent constructions. Too often the pupil sees no connection between an independent and a dependent subjunctive; what he has learned in regard to the former is no help to an acquaintance with the latter, but with the method here adopted it is hoped that after having mastered the ordinary independent uses of the mood he will be able to recognize even in the most involved constructions in subordinate clauses only new illustrations of principles with which he is already familiar. To him the subjunctive in a subordinate clause will be no longer a dreaded stranger, but an acquaintance and friend.

The subject of Hidden Quantity has received due attention in this volume as in the author's earlier Latin Grammar. Indeed, that work is believed to be entitled to the honor of having been the first Latin Grammar that ever attempted to mark systematically the hidden quantity of vowels, and to point out the means for determining it.

Another consideration which has had weight in determining the character of this grammar is the importance of bringing the treatment which the practical needs of the school and college

PREFACE

seem to demand into harmony with the learned results recently gathered by specialists in the field of historical grammar and linguistic study. On this point I deem myself fortunate in having secured the cordial coöperation of three of the eminent Latinists who are engaged in the preparation of the "*Historische Grammatik der Lateinischen Sprache*" now in process of publication at Leipzig, Professor F. Stolz of the University of Innsbruck, Professor G. Landgraf of Munich, and Professor H. Blase of Giessen, authors whose works are known and read by classical scholars throughout the world, and whose names are identified with the best scholarship of the age.

In accordance with a previous arrangement the manuscript on Phonology, Morphology, and Etymology, when nearly ready for the press, was submitted to Professor Stolz with the distinct understanding that if any part of the work was not found to be in full accord with the latest and best views within the range of his own special studies he should point it out, and suggest the best method of bringing the practical and the scientific views into harmony. By a similar arrangement the manuscript on Agreement and on the Use of Cases was submitted to Professor Landgraf, and that on Moods and Tenses to Professor Blase. After a careful examination of the several subjects submitted to their consideration they made written reports with such suggestions as their special studies warranted, and subsequently in a series of personal interviews I had the rare opportunity of obtaining their views and their advice on the various doubtful questions connected with our subject. I desire, therefore, to express my grateful appreciation of their kindness in thus freely offering me the priceless results of life-long labors in their several spheres.

I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to my colleagues in the University, Professors A. G. Harkness and W. C. Poland, who have read the proof, and given me the benefit of their accurate scholarship and large professional experience; to Professor E. P. Morris of Yale University for important statistics in regard to Interrogative Sentences, Quod Clauses, and the Use of the Subjunctive in Plautus and Terence; to Dr. H. W. Hayley for aid in the revision of the Prosody; to Dr. G. A. Williams of the

University Grammar School for the preparation of the indices, and to Dr. H. F. Linscott of the University of North Carolina for valuable suggestions on Phonology and Etymology.

My thanks are also due to many other friends who have kindly favored me with their advice, especially to Dr. C. B. Goff of the University Grammar School, Dr. W. T. Peck of the Providence High School, Dr. Moses Merrill of the Boston Latin School, and Dr. John Tetlow of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston.

For the benefit of those who prefer to begin with a more elementary manual in the study of Latin a school edition of this Grammar is published simultaneously with it. This is intended to meet the wants of those who do not contemplate a collegiate course of study; for all others the complete work will be found far more helpful.

In conclusion I desire once more to make my grateful acknowledgments to the classical teachers of the country who by their fidelity and skill in the use of my books have won for them such marked success. To their hands this work is now respectfully and gratefully committed.

ALBERT HARKNESS.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, JUNE 8, 1898.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CITING LATIN AUTHORS

Caes.	= Caesar, de bello Gallico	C. R. P.	= Cicero, de Re Publica
Caes. C.	= " de bello Civile	C. Rosc. A.	= " pro Roscio Amerino
C. Ac.	= Cicero, Academica	C. Rosc. C.	= " pro Roscio Comodo
C. Agr.	= " de lege Agraria	C. Sen.	= " de Senectute
C. Am.	= " de Amicitia	C. 1 Ver.	= " in Verrem Actio I.
C. Att.	= " ad Atticum	C. Ver.	= " in Verrem Actio II.
C. C.	= " in Catilinam	Il.	= Horatius, Carmina
C. Div.	= " de Divinatione	H. E.	= " Epistulae
C. Div. C.	= " Divinatio in Caecilium	H. Ep.	= " Epodi
C. Fam.	= " ad Familiares	O.	= Ovidius, Metamorphoses
C. Man.	= " pro lege Manilia	O. Il.	= " Heroides
C. N. D.	= " de Deorum Natura	Pl.	= Plautus
C. Opt. G.	= " de optimo genere Oratorum	S.	= Sallustius, Iugurtha
C. Or.	= " de Oratore	S. C.	= " Catilina
C. Q. Fr.	= " ad Quintum fratrem	T.	= Terentius
C. Rab.	= " pro Rabirio	Tac.	= Tacitus
C. Rab. P.	= " pro Rabirio Postumo	Verg.	= Vergilius, Aeneis
		Verg. E.	= " Eclogae
		Verg. G.	= " Georgica

LATIN GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

1. THE Latin language derives its name from the Latini, the Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European family, which embraces eight groups of tongues, known as the Aryan, the Armenian, the Greek, the Albanian, the Italian, the Keltic, the Germanic, and the Balto-Slavic. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

2. The Latin, the Oscan, and the Umbrian are the three leading members of the Italian group of this family, and the resemblance between them is so great that they appear to be only different dialects of one common language. At the dawn of history the Latin was confined to the small district of Latium, while the Oscan was spoken in the southern part of Italy, and the Umbrian in the northeastern part; but at the beginning of the Christian era, the Latin had not only supplanted the Oscan and the Umbrian in Italy, but it had already become the established language of a large part of Southern Europe. The Oscan and Umbrian dialects have been preserved to us only in very scanty remains, but the Latin is enshrined in a rich and valuable literature extending over a period of several centuries.

3. From the Latin has been directly derived the entire group of the Romance languages, of which the Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese are important members. The English belongs to

the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family, but it is indebted to the Latin for one third of its vocabulary. Hence the importance of a thorough knowledge of the Latin, if we would understand and appreciate our own vernacular.

LATIN GRAMMAR

4. Latin grammar treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises five parts:

- I. Phonology, which treats of the letters and sounds of the language.
- II. Morphology, which treats of the form and inflection of words.
- III. Etymology, which treats of the derivation of words.
- IV. Syntax, which treats of the structure of sentences.
- V. Prosody, which treats of quantity and versification.



PART I. — PHONOLOGY

ALPHABET

5. The Latin alphabet¹ is the same as the English with the omission of *j* and *w*, but *k* is seldom used, and *y* and *z* occur only in words of Greek origin.

1. It originally consisted of only twenty-one letters, as *c* supplied the place of *c* and *g*; *i* of *i* and *j*, *u* of *u* and *v* and sometimes of *y*.

2. Subsequently *G*, formed from *C* by simply changing the lower part of the letter, was added to the Latin alphabet, and at about the same time *z* disappeared from it. Thus the alphabet continued to consist of twenty-one letters until the time of Augustus, when *y* was introduced into it from the Greek and *z* was restored from the same source.

3. Even in the classical period *C* was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with *G*. Thus *C.* stands for *Gaius*, and *Cn.* for *Gnaeus*. This is a survival from the original use of *C* for *G*.

¹The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cūmae. Throughout the classical period they used in general only capital letters.

4. **U** and **V**, originally designated by the same character, are now used in many of the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant, as in English.

6. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants,¹ and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following:

7. CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS

Vowels

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|-----|
| 1. Open vowel ² | a | |
| 2. Medial vowels ³ | e | o |
| 3. Close vowels | i | y u |

Consonants

- | | Gutturals | Palatals | Linguals | Dentals | Labials |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------|----------|---------|---------|
| 4. Semivowels, sonant ⁴ | | i = y | | | v = w |
| 5. Nasals, sonant | n ⁵ | | | n | m |
| 6. Liquids, sonant | | | l, r | | |
| 7. Spirants, surd ⁴ | h | | | s | f |
| 8. Mutes, sonant | g | | | d | b |
| 9. Mutes, surd | c, q, k | | | t | p |

NOTE. — **x** = **cs**, or **gs**, is a double consonant.

¹ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus **i**, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as **ē**, is a vowel; but combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of **y**; see 12, 2.

² The vocal organs are fully open in pronouncing the open **a**, as in *father*, less so in pronouncing the close vowels and the semivowels, and very nearly closed in pronouncing the mutes.

³ **E** is a *medial* vowel between the open **a** and the close **i**, **o** a *medial* vowel between the open **a** and the close **u**; **i** is a *palatal* vowel, **u** a *labial*. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with **a** in the middle, with **i** at the palatal extreme, and with **u** at the labial extreme:

i e a o u

⁴ Sonant or voiced: surd or not voiced, but simply breathed.

⁵ With the sound of **n** in *concord*, *linger*. It occurs before gutturals; **congressus**, *meeting*.

8. Observe that the consonants are divided,

1. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production into

Gutturals, — throat letters.
 Palatals, — palate letters.
 Linguals, — tongue letters.
 Dentals, — teeth letters.
 Labials, — lip letters.

2. According to the manner in which they are uttered, into

Sonants, or voiced letters.
 Surds, voiceless or breathed letters.¹

9. Diphthongs are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable. The most common diphthongs are *ae*, *oe*, *au*, and *eu*. *Ei* and *ui* are rare.

ROMAN PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN²

10. The vowels are pronounced substantially as follows³:

Long		Short	
ā like a in ah:	ā/-rā ⁴	a like initial a in aha ⁵ :	at
ē " e " they:	ē ⁶	e " e " net:	et
ī " i " pique:	ī/-vī	i " i " pick:	id
ō " o " hole:	ōs	o " o " forty:	ob
ū " u " rule:	ū/-sū	u " u " full:	ut

1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: *sunt*, *u* as in *sum*, *su'-mus*; see 14 and 15.

¹ The distinction between a sonant and a surd will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant *b* and its corresponding surd *p* in such words as *bad*, *pad*. *B* is vocalized, *p* is not.

² This method is now generally adopted in the schools and colleges of our country. By the English method, which formerly prevailed, the letters are pronounced in general as in English.

³ But the vowel sounds must be kept as pure as possible, free from the glide or vanish heard in English.

⁴ Latin vowels marked with the macron " are long in quantity, i.e. in the duration of the sound; those not marked are short in quantity; see 15, 4. Observe that the accent is also marked. For the laws of accentuation, see 16 and 17.

⁵ The short vowels occupy only half as much time in utterance as the long vowels, but they can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. They have, however, nearly the same sound as the corresponding long vowels, but, with the exception of *a*, they are somewhat more open.

⁶ Or *ē* like *e* in *made*; *ī* like *e* in *me*, and *ū* like *oo* in *moon*.

2. **Y**, found only in Greek words, is intermediate in sound between the Latin **i** and **u**, similar to the French **u** and the German **ü**: **Ny'**-sa.

3. **U** in **qu**,¹ and generally in **gu** and **su** before a vowel, has the sound of **w**: **qu**i (kwe); **lin'**-gua (lin-gwa); **suā'**-sit (swa-sit).

11. **Diphthongs**.—In diphthongs, each vowel retains its own sound:

ae	nearly like ai	in aisle:	aes , mēn' -sae
oe	" "	oi " coin:	foe' -dus
au	" "	ou " out:	aut , tu' -ram
eu	" "	eu " feud:	neu , neu' -ter ²
ei	" "	ei " veil:	ei , hei
ui	" "	we	cui (kwe)

12. **Consonants**.—Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

c	like	c	in come:	co' -ma, cē' -na
ch	"	ch	" chemist:	cho' -rus
g	"	g	" get:	ge' -nus, glō' -ria
i	"	y	" yet:	iam ('am), iūs (yoos)
r	"	r	" rumor:	rā' -mor ³
s	"	s	" son:	so' -nō, sa' -cer
t	"	t	" time:	tī' -mor, tō' -tus
v	"	w	" we:	vel , vir
qu	"	qu	" quit:	quī , quō

1. Before a word beginning with a vowel, or with **h**, a final vowel, or a final **m** with a preceding vowel, seems to have been partially suppressed in the ordinary speech of the Romans, as well as in poetry. It was rapidly and indistinctly uttered, and thus it readily blended with the following vowel.

2. Observe that **i** is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant, that as a vowel it has, when long, the sound of **i** in *machine* or of **e** in *me*, and that as a consonant it has the sound of **y** in *yet*, *yes*. It is generally a vowel between consonants and a consonant between vowels, and at the beginning of words it is generally a vowel before consonants and a consonant before vowels: **ai'**-mus (ae-mus), **mā'**ior (mah-yor); **i'**-re (e-rā), **iam** (yam).

3. In the aspirated forms of the mutes, **ch**, **ph**, and **th**, **h** is in general

¹ This is sometimes called the parasitic **u**, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant.

² In pronouncing **ae**, endeavor to unite the sounds of the Latin **a** and **e**, and in pronouncing **eu**, unite the sounds of **e** and **u**; but some scholars pronounce **ae** like **ea** in *pear*.

³ **R** should be trilled.

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nearly or quite silent, though sometimes heard, especially in Greek words: **cho'-rus** (ko-rus), **pul'-cher** (pul-ker); **A-thē'nae**; **phi-lo'-so-phus**.

4. **B** has the sound of **p** before **s** and **t**: **urbs**, **sub'-ter** (pronounced **urps**, **sup'-ter**).¹

13. Syllables. — In dividing words into syllables,

1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: **mō'-re**, **per-suā'-dē**, **mēn'-sae**.

2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it — one or more — as can be conveniently pronounced with it:² **pa'-ter**, **pa'-trēs**, **ge'-ne-ri**, **do'-mi-nus**, **mēn'-sa**, **bel'-lum**. But —

3. Separate compound words into their component parts: **ab'-es**, **ob-i'-re**.³

4. A syllable is said to be open when it ends in a vowel, and closed when it ends in a consonant. Thus in **pa'-ter**, the first syllable is open, and the second closed.

QUANTITY

14. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common, i.e. sometimes long and sometimes short.⁴

1. **Long.** — A syllable is long in quantity, (1) if it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: **haec**, **rēs**; and (2) if its vowel is followed by **x**, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: **dux**, **rēx**, **sunt**.

2. **Short.** — A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate **h**: **di'-ēs**, **vi'-ae**, **ni'-hil**.

¹ On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see 55, 1, footnote.

² By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as **o'-mnis**, **i'-pse**. Others, on the contrary, think that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it, a view which is favored by the fact that a syllable with a short vowel becomes long, if that vowel is followed by two consonants, except a mute and a liquid; as one does not see how the consonants can make the syllable long, unless one of them belongs to it.

³ But it is a question whether this traditional rule represents the actual pronunciation of the Romans, as it seems probable that compounds were pronounced like simple words.

⁴ For rules of quantity, see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

3. **Common.** — A syllable is common if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'-grī.¹

15. Vowels, like syllables, are either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable, as a short vowel may stand in a long syllable.

1. Vowels standing before **x** or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid, are said to have hidden quantity.

2. It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the hidden quantity of vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short, unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

3. Vowels are long before **ns, nf, and gn**: cōn'-sul, in-fē'-līx, rēg'-num, īg'nis.

4. The signs **ˉ**, and **˘** are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is *long*, the second that it is *common*, i.e. sometimes long and sometimes short; **ubi**. All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

ACCENTUATION

16. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: mēn'-sa.

1. In Latin as in English accent 's stress of voice.

17. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, the last syllable but one, if that is long in quantity,² otherwise on the Antepenult, the last but two: ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.

1. The enclitics, **que, ve, ne, ce, met**, etc., never used as separate words, throw back their accent upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho-mi-ne'-que; mēn-sa'-que; e-go'-met.

2. Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics, i.e. they are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word that they have no accent of their own: sub īū'-dī-ce; in-ter rē'-gēs.

¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.

² Thus the quantity of the *syllable*, not of the *vowel*, determines the place of the accent: **regen'-tis**, accented on the penult, because that syllable is long, though its vowel is short; see 14, 1.

3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: **mo'-nu-ē'-runt**, **mo'-nu-e-rā'-mus**, **in-stau'-rā-vē'-runt**.

4. A few long words admit two secondary accents: **ho'-nō-ri'-fi-cen-tis'-si-mus**.

5. Certain words which have lost a final *e* retain the accent of the full form: **il-līc'** for il-lī'-ce, **il-lāc'** for il-lā'-ce, **is-tīc'** for is-tī'-ce, etc.; **bo-nān'** for bo-nā'-ne, **tan-tōn'** for tan-tō'-ne, **au-dīn'** for au-dis'-ne, **ē-dūc'** for ē-dū'-ce.

6. Genitives in *i* for *ī* and vocatives in *i* accent the penult: **in-ge'-nī** for in-ge'-nī-i; **Mer-cu'-rī**.

18. Compounds are accented like simple words, but **faciō**, when compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: **ca-le-fa'-cit**.

19. **Original Accent.**—Originally all Latin words were accented on the first syllable. This fact must be borne in mind in explaining phonetic changes. The syllable immediately following the original accent, i.e. the second syllable of the word, is called a Post-Tonic syllable.

INHERITED VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

20. The Latin inherited from the parent speech the vowels, **a, e, i, o, u**; **ā, ē, ī, ō, ū**; and the diphthongs, **ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou**; **āi, ēi, ōi, āu, ēu, ōu**. In some words these vowels have been preserved unchanged as in the following examples:

a : agō, amō, albus	ā : māter, fāgus, clāvis
e : est, decem, ferō	ē : lēx, mēnsis, plēnus
i : fidēs, quis, minuō	ī : vīs, vīvus, sīmus
o : octō, domus	ō : dōnum, nōtus
u : super, ruber	ū : nūus, sūs

1. The Latin also inherited an indistinct Indo-European vowel represented by an inverted *e*; see 29.

2. The diphthong **au** retains its original form in classical Latin, as in **autem**, **augeō**; but all the other diphthongs were more or less changed before the classical period, though most of those which begin with a short vowel occur in rare instances in early Latin.

VOWEL GRADATION, OR ABLAUT

21. The Latin also inherited certain vowel variations, which appear in the different forms of certain roots, stems, and suffixes.

1. Thus the common root of **fod-iō**, *I dig*, and **fōd-i**, *I have dug*, is **fod** in **fod-iō** and **fōd** in **fōd-i**; that of **fac-iō**, *I make*, and **fēc i**, *I have made*, is **fac** and **fēc**; that of **gen-us**, *offspring*, and **gī-gn-ō**, *I beget*, is **gen** and **gn**¹; that of **dō-num**, *gift*, **da-mus**, *we give*, and **de-d-i**, *I have given*, is **dō**, **da**, and **d**.¹ This variation in vowels is called Vowel Gradation or Ablaut.

2. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, but in Latin they have mostly disappeared as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.

PHONETIC CHANGES

22. Latin words in the course of their history have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

23. The phonetic changes in vowels may be either Qualitative, affecting the quality of the sound, or Quantitative, affecting its length or quantity.

I. Qualitative Changes in Vowels

24. An Indo-European **a** may become in Latin in post-tonic² syllables: (1) **e**, (2) **i**, (3) **ī** or **u**, and (4) **u**. Thus:

1. **A** becomes **e** in post-tonic closed² syllables, except before labials and **l**: **factus**, but **cōnfectus**; **captus**, but **acceptus**.

2. **A** becomes **i** in post-tonic open² syllables, except before labials, and in all post-tonic syllables before **ng**: **agō**, but **adigō**; **statuō**, but **cōstituō**; **tangō**, but **at-tingō**.

3. **A** becomes **ī** or **u** in post-tonic open syllables before labials and before **l**: **capīō**, but **man-cīpiūm** and **man-cupium**; **salīō**, but **in-siliō** and **in-sulīō**.

4. **A** becomes **u** in post-tonic syllables before **l** + another consonant: **salīō**, but **in-sultus**; **calcō**, but **in-culcō**.

¹ Observe that the vowel sometimes disappears: **gen**, **gn**; **da**, **d**.

² Remember that the term post-tonic is applied to the syllable following the initial accent, i.e. to the second syllable of the word (19), and that a syllable is said to be open when it ends in a vowel, and closed when it ends in a consonant; see 13, 4.

25. An Indo-European **e** may become: (1) **i** and (2) **o**. Thus:

1. **E** becomes **i**, (1) in post-tonic syllables, except before **r**: **legō**, but **col-ligō**; **emō**, but **ad-imō**; (2) in final syllables before **s** and **t**: **salūtes**, **salūtis**; **Cereres**, **Cereriis**; ***leget**,¹ **legit**; ***reget**, **regit**; and (3) before **n** + a guttural: ***tenguō**, **tinguō**.

2. **E** may become **o** after an initial **v**: ***velt**, **volt**;² ***vemō**, **vomō**.

3. Initial **sve** becomes **so**: ***svenos**, **sonus**; ***svedālis**, **sodālis**.

26. An Indo-European **i** may become: (1) **e** and (2) **i** or **u**. Thus:

1. **I** final may become **e**, but it sometimes disappears as in neuter stems in **ālī** and **ārī** (103, 1): ***mārī**, **mare**; ***levī**, **leve**.

2. **I** before **r** for **s** becomes **e**: ***sisō**, **serō**; ***cinisī**, **cineris**.

3. **I** becomes **i** or **u** in post-tonic syllables before labials: **pontifex** or **pontufex**.

4. Final **er** is sometimes developed from **ri**-stems, as follows: ***acri-s**, ***acr-s**, ***acer-s**, **acer**.³

27. An Indo-European **o**⁴ may become: (1) **u**, (2) **e**, (3) **e** or **i**, and (4) **i** or **u**. Thus:

1. **O** becomes **u** (1) in post-tonic closed syllables: ***genos**, **genus**; ***donom**, **donum**; and (2) in accented syllables before **l** + a consonant and before **n** + a consonant: ***molta**, **multa**; ***hone**, **hunc**; ***oncos**, **uncus**.

2. **O** becomes **e** when final: ***i-sto**, **iste**; ***sequiso**, **sequere**.

3. **O** becomes **e** or **i** in post-tonic open syllables, except before labials: ***sociotās**, **societās**; ***novotās**, **novitās**.

4. **O** generally becomes **i**, rarely **u**, in post-tonic open syllables before labials: **aurifex**, rarely **aurufex**; **māximus**, **māxumus**.

5. Final **er** is sometimes developed from **ro**-stems in the same way as from **ri**-stems (26, 4): ***agro-s**, ***agr-s**, ***ager-s**, **ager**.

28. An Indo-European **u** becomes **i** or **u** in post-tonic syllables before labials: old form **dissupō**, later **dissipō**; **lacruma**, later **lacrima**.

29. An indistinct Indo-European vowel, represented by an inverted **e** = **ə**, generally becomes **a** in Latin: ***datos**, **datus**; ***satos**, **satus**.

¹ The assumed form from which the Latin word, as it appears in literature, is supposed to have been derived, is designated by an asterisk.

² **Volt** subsequently became **vult**.

³ **I** in **acri-s** disappears, leaving **r** sonant, then **r** sonant becomes **er**, and final **s** disappears.

⁴ After **v**, **u**, or **qu**, **o** is preserved longer than elsewhere: **servos**, afterward **servus**; **sc mortuos**, **equos**, etc.

30. The Indo-European liquids and nasals, *l*, *r*, and *m*, *n*, are vocalized in Latin; *l* becomes *ol*, later *ul*, and *r* becomes *or*: **multa*, **molta*, *multa*; **mytis*, *mortia*; *m* becomes *em*, and *n*, *en*: **dekṃ*, *decem*; **tntos*, *tentus*.

31. Assimilation of Vowels. — A vowel is sometimes assimilated to the vowel of the following syllable: **cōsulium*, *cōnsilium*; **exsulium*, *exsilium*; **mehī*, *mihī*; **tebī*, *tibī*; **nehil*, *nihil*; **bonē*, *bene*; **ine-mordit*, *mo-mordit*, **pe-pōscit*, *po-pōscit*; **ec-currit*, *eu-currit*.

II. Qualitative Changes in Diphthongs

32. The diphthong *ai* is retained in early inscriptions, but it afterward becomes *ae* and *i*. Thus:

1. *ai* generally becomes *ae*: **laivos*, *laevus*, *scaēvus*, *aevum*.
2. *ai* becomes *i* both in post-tonic and in final syllables: *quaerō*, but in *quīrō*; **mensais*, *mēnsis*.

33. The diphthong *ei* becomes *i* in pronunciation, although sometimes written *ei* in early Latin: *dicō*; *divus*, *fidō*, sometimes written *deivus*, *feidō*.

34. The diphthong *oi* becomes *oe*, *ū*, and *i*. Thus:

1. *oi* becomes *oe* in a few words: *poena*, *foedus*.
2. *oi* becomes *ū* in most words: **oīnos*, **oēnos*, *ūnus*; **moēnia*, *mūnia*.
3. *oi* becomes *i* in final syllables: **equoi*, *equī*; **equois*, *equīs*.

35. The diphthong *au* generally remains unchanged, but it sometimes becomes *ū* in post-tonic syllables: *claudō*, but in-*clūdo*; *fraudō*, but *dē-fraudō*, or *dē-frūdō*.

36. The diphthongs, *eu* and *ou*, coalesce and become *ū*: **deucō*, **doucō*, *dūcō*; **ious*, *iūs*.

III. Quantitative Changes in Vowels

37. Vowels are lengthened before *ns*, *nf*, and *gn*: *cōnsul*, *infelix*, *ignis*.

38. Vowels are often lengthened in compensation for the loss of consonants. Thus:

1. For the loss of *s* or *x* in accented syllables before *d*, *l*, *m*, or *n*: **nīsdos*, *nīdus*, English *nest*; **īsdem*, *īdem*; **acsīa*, *āla*; **prīsmos*, *prīmus*; **pōsnō*, *pōnō*; **texmō*, *tēmō*.

2. For the loss of **h**: *mahior, māior; *ahio, āio.
 3. A vowel lengthened before **ns** in final syllables remains long after the loss of **n**: *servōns, servōs; *rēgēns, rēgēs.

39. Long vowels are shortened

1. Generally before other vowels: *audiunt, audiunt; *audiam, audiam; fidēi, fidel; rēi, rei; but diēi, illius.

2. In final syllables before **l**, **m**, **r**, **t**, and **nt**: *animāli, animal; *amēm, amom; *audiār, audiar; amāt,¹ amat; *amānt, amant.

3. Final **ā** is shortened in classical Latin in the plural of neuter nouns and adjectives and in the Nominative and Vocative singular of nouns in **a** of the First Declension: templā in Plautus, later **templa**; graviā, **gravia**; musā, **musa**.

4. Final **ē**, **i**, and **ō** are sometimes shortened: *malē, male; *nisi, nisi; *ibi, ibi; *egō, ego.

5. The shortening of final syllables is supposed to have begun in dissyllables with iambic measurement, i.e. with short penults. In these the final syllable was shortened by being assimilated in quantity to the first, as amāt, amat; bonā, bona; egō, ego.

6. Long vowels in syllables originally accented (19) are sometimes shortened, and the following consonant is doubled in compensation: Iūpiter, Iuppiter; lītera, littera; *mītō, mittō.

40. Vowels may disappear from a word by syncope or vowel absorption: *re-pepuli, reppuli; *re-ceedi, reccidi; *clavidō, claudō; *prīnceps, princeps; *ūnudecim, undecim.

1. Final vowels sometimes disappear: *animāli, animal; dīce, dīc; *sine, sin.

41. Occasionally a short vowel, generally **u**, sometimes **e** or **i**, is apparently developed before a liquid or nasal: *stablom, stabulum; *stabilis, stabilis; but see 30.

CONTRACTION OF VOWELS

42. Two vowels of the same quality are contracted into the corresponding long vowel: *treies, trees, trēs; *igneēs, ignēs; nihil, niil, nīl; *coopia, cōpia.

43. Two vowels of different quality are contracted into a long vowel, generally of the quality of the first: *co-agō, cōgō; *de-agō, dēgō; *promō, prōmō.

¹ Final **āt**, **ēt**, and **īt** are preserved long in Plautus and other early poets: versāt, habēt, vellīt.

1. The changes illustrated in the following verbal forms may have been produced either by contraction, or by the dropping of the syllable *ve* or *vi* before *r* or *s*: *amāveram*, *amāram*; *amāvissē*, *amāsse*; *nēvissē*, *nēssem*; *nōvissē*, *nōsse*.

2. Many combinations of vowels remain uncontracted, as *aē*, *ea*, *eō*, *ia*, *iē*, *ua*, and *uē*: *aēneus*, *eam*, *moneō*, *animālia*, *diēs*, *ingenua*, *ingenuē*.

CONSONANTS

44. The Latin inherited the following consonants:

1. The Mutes *k*, *g*, *t*, *d*, *p*, *b*, and the Aspirates *gh*, *dh*, *bh*.
2. The Nasals *m*, *n*, and the Liquids *l*, *r*.
3. The Semivowels *i* and *u*, and the Spirant *s*.

45. The Latin inherited three series of *k*- and *g*-mutes, distinguished as Palatals, Velars, and Labialized Velars. These are represented in Latin as follows:

1. The Palatals *k* and *g* become *c* and *g*, and *gh* generally becomes *h*, but after *n* it becomes *g*: *centum*, *decem*, in which *k* becomes *c*; *ager*, *genus*, in which *g* remains *g*; *humus*, *hortus*, in which *gh* becomes *h*; *angō*, *fiŋgō*, in which *gh* becomes *g*.

NOTE.—In a few words initial *gh* before *u* becomes *f*: *fundō*.

2. The Velars are developed like palatals, velar *k* and *g* becoming *c* and *g*, and velar *gh* generally becoming *h*, but becoming *g* before *r*: *capere*, *cavēre*; *grūs*, *tegō*; *hostis*, *hortor*; *gradior*.

3. The Labialized Velar *k* becomes *qu*, which becomes *c* before consonants: *quis*, *que*, *quod*, in which the labialized velar *k* becomes *qu*, which becomes *c* in **coc-si*, *coxi*.

4. The Labialized Velar *g* becomes *gu*, which remains unchanged after nasals, but is reduced to *g* before other consonants, and to *v* when initial or between vowels: *unguō*, *stinguō*, in which the labialized velar *g* becomes *gu*; *glāns*, *āgnus*; *veniō*, English *come*; *vīvus*.

5. The Labialized Velar *gh* becomes *f*, when initial, *gu* after *n*, and *v* between vowels: *formus*, *frīō*; *an-guis*, *nin-guit*; *niv-is*.

46. The Dentals *t* and *d* generally remain unchanged: *pater*, *sep-tem*; *decem*, *deus*.

1. The aspirate *dh* becomes *f* when initial: *faciō*, *forēs*, English *door*, and generally *d* when medial, but *b* before *r*: *medius*; *ruber*.

47. The Labials *p* and *b* generally remain unchanged: *potis*, *pāx*, *opus*; *lambō*, *lūbricus*; but *p* became *b* in a few words, as in *ab* for **ap*, *ob* for **op*, *sub* for **sup*, *bibō* for **pibō*.

1. The aspirate **bh** becomes (1) **f** when initial: **frāter**, English *brother*; **ferō**, English *bear*, and (2) **b** when medial: **al-bus**, **amb-itus**.

48. The Nasals **m**¹ and **n** and the Liquids **l**² and **r** remain unchanged: **medius**, **homō**: **genus**, **dōnum**; **linquō**, **ruber**.

49. **v** generally remains unchanged: **ovis**, **aevum**; but it is sometimes lost between vowels: ***nevolō**, **nōlō**.

50. **s** often remains unchanged: **est**, **sumus**, **suus**; but it generally becomes **r** between vowels:³ **flōs**, **flōris**; **genus**, **generis**.

CHANGES IN CONSONANTS

51. A Guttural — **c**, **g**, **q** (qu), or **h** (for gh) — before **s** unites with it and forms **x**: ***duc-s**, **dux**; ***reg-s**, **rēx**; ***coqu-si**, **coxi**; ***trah-si**, **trāxi**.

1. For the loss of the guttural between a liquid and **s** or **t**, see 58, 1.

52. Note also the following changes in consonants:

1. **Dt** and **tt** become **st** before **r**; in other situations they generally become **ss**, reduced to **s** after long syllables: ***rōd-trum**, **rōstrum**; ***fod-tus**, **fos-sus**; ***plaud-tus**, **plau-sus**; ***vert-tus**, **ver-sus**.

2. **D** sometimes represents an original **t**: **aput**, **apud**; **haut**, **haud**.

3. **Dv** initial sometimes becomes **b**: **dvellum**, **bellum**.

4. **sr**, when initial, becomes **fr**; otherwise **br**: ***srīgus**, **frīgus**, *cold*. ***fūnes-ris**, from **fūnes** in **fūner-is**, **fūnebris**.

5. A euphonic **p** is generally developed between **m** and **s** and between **m** and **t**: ***cōm-si**, **cōm-p-si**; ***cōm-tum**, **cōm-p-tum**.

ASSIMILATION

53. A consonant is often assimilated to a following consonant. Thus:

1. **D** and **t** are often assimilated before **s**; **ds** and **ts** becoming **ss**, which is simplified to **s** when final, and after diphthongs and long vowels: ***concut-sit**, **concus-sit**; ***lapid-s**, **lapis**; ***art-s**, **ars**; ***amant-s**, **amāns**; ***claud-sit**, **clau-sit**; ***suād-sit**, **suā-sit**.

¹ **M**, when final, was a very weak nasal, and before words beginning with a vowel it almost disappeared in pronunciation.

² **L** appears in place of an earlier **d** in about a dozen Latin words: **lingua**, old form **dingua**, **lacrīma**, **olēre**.

³ **R** sometimes takes the place of final **s**, following the analogy of **r** for **s** between vowels; thus **honōs** becomes **honor** from **honōr-is**. **S** may be retained between vowels when it stands for **ss**: **hau-si** for ***haus-si**.

2. **D** is generally assimilated before **c**, **qu**, **g**, **l**, **n**, **p**, and **s**: ***hod-ce**, ***hoc-ce**, **hōc**; **quid-quam**, **quic-quam**; ***ad-ger**, **ag-ger**; ***sed-la**, **sel-la**; ***merced-nārius**, **mercen-nārius**; ***quid-pe**, **quip-pe**; ***claud-sit**, ***claus-sit**, **clau-sit**.

3. **T** is assimilated before **c** and **s**: ***sit-cus**, **sic-cus**; ***concut-sit**, **concus-sit**.

4. **N** is assimilated before **l** and **m**: ***ūn-lus**, **ūllus**; ***gen-na**, **gem-na**.

5. **R** is assimilated before **l**: ***ager-lus**, **agei-lus**.

6. **P** is assimilated before **f** and **m**: ***op-fici-na**, **of-fici-na**; ***sup-mus**, **sum-mus**.

7. **S** is assimilated before **f**: ***dis-ficilis**, **dif-ficilis**.

8. For assimilation in Compounds of Prepositions, see 374.

54. A consonant is sometimes assimilated to a preceding consonant.

1. **D** and **n** are generally assimilated to a preceding **l**: ***cal-dit**, **cal-lis**; ***col-nis**, **col-lis**; ***fal-nō**, **fal-lō**.

2. **S** is assimilated to a preceding **l** or **r**: ***facil-simus**, **facil-limus**; ***vel-se**, **vel-le**; ***fer-se**, **fer-re**; ***acer-simus**, **acer-rimus**.

55. Partial Assimilation. — A consonant is often partially assimilated to the following consonant. Thus:

1. Before the surd **s** or **t**, a sonant **b** or **g** is generally changed to its corresponding surd, **p**¹ or **c**: ***scrib-si**, **scrip-si**; ***scrib-tus**, **scrip-tus**; ***reg-si**, **rēxī** (51); ***reg-tus**, **rēc-tus**.

2. **Qu**² and **h** are also changed to **c** before **s** and **t**: ***coqu-sit**, ***coc-sit**, **coxit**; ***coqu-tus**, **coc-tus**; ***trah-sit**, ***trāc-sit**, **trāxit**; ***trah-tus**, **trāc-tus**.

3. Before a labial, **p** or **b**, **n** is generally changed to the labial **m**: **inperō**, **imperō**; **inperātor**, **imperiātor**; ***inbellis**, **imbellis**.

4. Before **n**, a labial, **p** or **b**, is changed to the labial **m** in a few words: ***sop-nos**, **som-nus**; ***Sab-niom**, **Sam-nium**.

5. **M** is changed to the dental **n** regularly before dental mutes, and often before guttural mutes: ***eum-dem**, **eun-dem**; ***eōrum-dem**, **eōrun-dem**; ***quem-dam**, **quen-dam**; ***tam-tus**, **tan-tus**; ***hum-ce**, **hunc**; ***prim-ceps**, **prīn-ceps**; **num-quam** or **nun-quam**; **quam-quam** or **quan-quam**.

¹ But **b** is generally retained before **s** in **abs** and in nouns in **bs**: **urbs**; and before **s** and **t** in **ob** and **sub** in compounds and derivatives: **ob-servāns**, **ob-tūsus**, **sub-scribō**, **sub-ter**. In these cases, however, **b** takes the sound of **p**, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in writing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing.

² **Qu** is not a syllable; **u** in this combination is simply a parasitic sound developed by **q**, which is never found without it.

56. Dissimilation.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus:

1. *Caeluleus, from *caelum*, becomes **caeruleus**.
2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with *l* generally used after *r*, and one with *r* generally used after *l*¹: *ālis*, *āris*; *blum*, *bulum*, *brum*; *clum*, *culum*, *crum*; *rēg-ālis*, *popul-āris*; *vocā-bulum*, *dēlū-brum*; **ōrā-clum*, *ōrā-culum*; **vehī-clum*, *vehī-culum*; *sepul-crum*.

LOSS OF CONSONANTS

57. Of two consonants standing at the beginning of a word, the first often disappears; of three thus situated, the first two often disappear: **gnātus*, *nātus*; **gnotus*, *nōtus*; **scoruscus*, *coruscus*; *stlis*, *lis*; **stlocus*, *locus*.

58. Groups of consonants often lose one or more of their members.

1. A guttural mute — *c*, *g*, or *qu* — standing between a liquid and *s* or *t*, generally disappears: **mulcsit*, *mulsit*; **fulgsit*, *fulsit*; **spargsit*, *sparait*; **torqisit*, *torait*; **fuletus*, *fultus*.

2. A guttural mute occasionally disappears in other situations, especially before *m* or *v*: **lūcmen*, *lūmen*; **exagmen*, *exāmen*; **iugmentum*, *iūmentum*; **bregvis*, *brevis*.

3. *Cs* and *x* sometimes disappear: **lūcsna*, *lūna*; **sexdecim*, *sēdecim*; **sexu*, *sēni*; **axla*, *āla*, *ving*.

4. *D* generally disappears before *sc*, *sp*, *st*: *adscendere*, *ascendere*; *adspicere*, *aspicere*; *adstāre*, *astāre*.

5. *N*, *r*, and *s* often disappear: **in-gnōtus*, *ignōtus*; **equōns*, *equōs*; **porseere*, *pōscere*; **isdem*, *īdem*; **iūsdex*, *iūdex*; **prismus*, *prīmus*; *audiāne*, *audin*.

6. *I* consonant generally disappears between vowels, and sometimes in other situations: **bi-iguae*, **bi-ligae*, **bi igae*, *bīgae*; *abiicere*, *abicere*.²

NOTE. — Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of *v*: *si vis*, *sia*, *si vultis*, *sūltis*.

¹ The suffix *āris* was formed from *ālis* by dissimilation; from *clum* was formed *crum* by dissimilation, and *culum* by developing the vocal liquid *l*; *blum* and *brum* are both inherited, but *bulum* was developed from *blum*. In *rēg-ālis*, *ālis* is used because *r* precedes, but in *popul-āris*, *āris* is used because *l* precedes. When neither *l* nor *r* precedes, the original suffix *ālis* is used.

² This is the approved form in verbs compounded of *iacere* and monosyllabic prepositions; but *abiicere* is pronounced as if written *abiicere*. The syllable *ab* thus remains long by position.

7. **H** often disappears between vowels, or before **i** consonant ; **prehendō**, **prēndō**, **nihil**, **nīl** ; ***ahiō**, **āiō** ; ***mahlor**, **mālor**.

8. For the assimilation and loss of **d** and **t** before **s**, see 53. 1.

59. **Loss of Final Consonants.** — Final consonants often disappear.

1. Final **d** disappeared at a very early date after long vowels and after **r** : **sententiād**, **sententiā**, ablative ; **praedād**, **praedā** ; ***datōl**, **datō**, imperative ; ***habētōd**, **habētō** ; ***cord**, **cor**.

2. Final **t** disappears after **c** and **s** : ***lact** (**lact-is**), **lāc**, ***ost**, **os**.

3. Final **n** disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in **ōn**, **on** : ***leōn**, **leō** ; ***homon**, **homō** ; ***ēgon**, **ego**.

4. Final **os** disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in **ro**, and final **s** sometimes disappears in early inscriptions from other stems in **o** : ***pueros**, **puer** ; ***viros**, **vir** ; **Rōscios**, **Rōscio**, later **Rōscius** ; **Cornēlios**, **Cornēlio**.



PART II. — MORPHOLOGY

60. Morphology treats of the Form and Inflection of words.

61. The Parts of Speech are — Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

62. Nouns, or Substantives, are Names, as of persons, places, or things : **Cicerō**, *Cicero* ; **Rōma**, *Rome* ; **domus**, *house*.

1. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place : **Cicerō**, **Rōma**.

2. A Common Noun, or Appellative, is a name common to all the members of a class of objects ; **vir**, *man* ; **equus**, *horse*. Common nouns include

Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects : **populus**, *people* ; **exercitus**, *army*.

Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities : **virtūs**, *virtue* ; **iūstitia**, *justice*.

Material Nouns, designating materials as such : **aurum**, *gold* ; **lignum**, *wood* ; **aqua**, *water*.

63. Adjectives qualify nouns : **bonus**, *good* ; **māgnus**, *great* ; **bonus vir**, *a good man*.

64. Nouns and Adjectives have Gender, Number, and Case.

MORPHOLOGY

GENDER

65. There are three genders — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

66. **Natural and Grammatical Gender.** — In Latin gender is either Natural, as dependent upon sex, or Grammatical, as dependent upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

Natural Gender

67. The names of Persons have Natural Gender. They are accordingly

1. Masculine, if they denote males: **Caesar**, *Caesar*; **vir**, *man*; **rēx**, *king*.

2. Feminine, if they denote females: **Tullia**, *Tullia*; **mulier**, *woman*; **rēgina**, *queen*.

3. Both Masculine and Feminine, if they are applicable to both sexes: **civis**, *citizen*, male or female; **homō**, *a human being*, man or woman; but when used without distinct reference to sex, such nouns are generally masculine.

NOTE. — A few names of the lower animals are sometimes used in the same way: **bōs**, *ox*, or *cow*; **canis**, *dog*, male or female; **anser**, *gander*, or *goose*. But some names of the lower animals, though applicable to both sexes, have only grammatical gender determined by their endings (71): **corvus**, *raven*, masculine; **aquila**, *eagle*, feminine.

Rules for Grammatical Gender

68. **Masculine.** — The names of Rivers, Winds, and Months are masculine: **Rhēnus**, *the Rhine*; **Notus**, *the South Wind*; **Mārtius**, *March*; but

1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance with this rule. Thus names of rivers in **a** are feminine: **Albula**, *the river Albula*; **Allia**, *the Allia*.

69. **Feminine.** — The names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees are feminine: **Graecia**, *Greece*; **Rōma**, *Rome*; **Dēlos**, *the Island of Delos*; **pīrus**, *pear tree*; but

1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance with this rule. Thus plurals in **i** and a few other nouns are masculine

and nouns in **um** are neuter: **Delphi**, **Pontus**; **oleaster**, *wild olive tree*; **pinaster**, *fir tree*, masculine; **Latium**, **Saguntum**, neuter.

70. Neuter. — Indeclinable nouns, Infinitives and clauses used as nouns are neuter: **alpha**, the Greek letter *alpha*, *a*; **fās**, *the right*; **tuum amāre**, *your loving*.

71. Gender by Endings. — In most nouns and adjectives the grammatical gender is determined by the ending of the Nominative singular. Thus nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension (82) in **us** are masculine: **amicus**, *friend*; **bonus**, *good*; nouns and adjectives in **a** are feminine: **mēnsa**, *table*; **bona**, *good*; and nouns and adjectives in **um** are neuter: **templum**, *temple*; **bonum**, *good*.

PERSON AND NUMBER

72. The Latin, like the English, has three Persons, the First Person denoting the speaker; the Second, the person spoken to; the Third, the person spoken of; and two Numbers, the Singular denoting one, and the Plural, more than one.

CASES

73. The Latin, unlike the English, has six cases:

Names	English Equivalents
Nominative	Nominative, Case of the Subject
Vocative	Nominative, as the Case of Address
Genitive	Possessive, or Objective with <i>of</i>
Dative	Objective with <i>to</i> or <i>for</i>
Accusative	Objective after a Verb or a Preposition
Ablative	Objective with <i>from</i> , <i>with</i> , <i>by</i> , <i>in</i>

1. **Oblique Cases.** — The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. **Locative.** — The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the Place in Which.

DECLENSION

74. Stem and Suffixes. — The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.

MORPHOLOGY

1. **Meaning.** — Accordingly, each case form contains two distinct elements — the Stem,¹ which gives the general meaning of the word, and the Case Suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in *rēg-is*, of a king, the general idea, *king*, is denoted by the stem *rēg*; the relation of, by the suffix *is*.

2. **Characteristic.** — The last letter of the stem is called the Stem Characteristic, or Stem Ending.

3. **Case Endings.** — The case suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns and adjectives with consonant stems, while in all other words they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i.e. with the final vowel of the stem. The ending produced by the union of the case suffix with the characteristic vowel is called a Case Ending.

Cases Identical in Form

75. 1. The Nominative and Vocative are alike in form, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in *us* of the Second Declension and in a few Greek nouns. In all other words the Vocative is simply the Nominative used in address, as the Nominative is used in English.

2. The Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative in neuters are alike and in the plural end in *a*.

3. The Dative and Ablative plural are alike.

76. **Five Declensions.** — In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the endings of the Genitive singular, or by the stem characteristic, best seen in the Genitive plural, as follows:

Declension	Gen. Sing. Ending	Characteristic	Gen. Plur.
I. or A -Dec.	<i>ae.</i>	<i>ā</i>	seen in <i>mēns-ā-rum</i>
II. " O -Dec.	<i>i</i>	<i>o</i>	" <i>serv-ō-rum</i> ²
III. " I -Dec.	<i>is</i>	<i>i</i>	" <i>civ-i-um</i>
" " Cons. Dec.	<i>is</i>	cons.	" <i>mili-t-um</i> ³
IV. " U -Dec.	<i>ūs</i>	<i>u</i>	" <i>fruct-u-um</i>
V. " E -Dec.	<i>ēi</i>	<i>ē</i>	" <i>di-ē-rum</i>

1. The five declensions were inherited from the parent speech.

77. The First, Second, and Third Declensions contain both nouns and adjectives; the Fourth and Fifth only nouns.

¹ In many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a Root. For the distinction between roots and stems, see 320, 1.

² The *ō* in *serv-ō-rum* was originally short; hence the characteristic is *o*.

³ In this word the characteristic is *t*.

FIRST DECLENSION

A-NOUNS AND A-ADJECTIVES—STEMS IN *ā*

78. Latin nouns and adjectives of the First Declension end in *a* and are feminine. They are declined precisely alike, as follows:

A-NOUNS

Mēsa, table, a table, or the table.

Cases	SINGULAR			Case Endings ¹
		Meaning		
N. V. ²	<i>mēsa</i>	<i>a table, O table</i>		<i>a</i>
Gen.	<i>mēnsao</i>	<i>of a table</i>		<i>ae</i>
Dat.	<i>mēnsae</i>	<i>to or for a table</i>		<i>ae</i>
Acc.	<i>mēsam</i>	<i>a table</i>		<i>am</i>
Abl.	<i>mēnsā</i>	<i>with, from, or by a table</i> ³		<i>ā</i>
PLURAL				
N. V.	<i>mēnsae</i>	<i>tables, O tables</i>		<i>ae</i>
Gen.	<i>mēnsārum</i>	<i>of tables</i>		<i>ārum</i>
Dat.	<i>mēnsīs</i>	<i>to or for tables</i>		<i>īs</i>
Acc.	<i>mēnsās</i>	<i>tables</i>		<i>ās</i>
Abl.	<i>mēnsīs</i>	<i>with, from, or by tables</i>		<i>īs</i>

A-NOUNS AND A-ADJECTIVES

Bona, good.

rēgīna, queen.

Cases	Adjective	SINGULAR		
		Noun	Meaning	
N. V.	<i>bona</i>	<i>rēgīna</i>	<i>a good queen, O good queen</i>	
Gen.	<i>bonae</i>	<i>rēgīnae</i>	<i>of a good queen</i>	
Dat.	<i>bonae</i>	<i>rēgīnae</i>	<i>to or for a good queen</i>	
Acc.	<i>bonam</i>	<i>rēgīnam</i>	<i>a good queen</i>	
Abl.	<i>bonā</i>	<i>rēgīnā</i> ³	<i>with, from, or by a good queen</i>	

¹ These case endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases, the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared.

² N. V. = Nom. and Voc. As the Vocative is only a special use of the Nominative, it is combined with that case in the paradigm.

³ The Ablative, used sometimes with a preposition and sometimes without, is variously rendered, but the Ablative of personal appellatives takes a preposition, as *ā* or *ab*, *from, by; cum, with, etc.; ā bonā rēgīnā, from or by the good queen.*

MORPHOLOGY

PLURAL			
N. V.	bonae	rēginae	good queens, O good queens
Gen.	bonārum	rēginārum	of good queens
Dat.	bonis	rēginis	to or for good queens
Acc.	bonās	rēginās	good queens
Abl.	bonis	rēginis	with, from, or by good queens

1. **Stems.** — In nouns and adjectives of the First Declension, the stem ends in **a**, shortened in the Nominative and Vocative singular. Thus the stem **mēnsā** becomes **mēnsa** in the Nominative, **bonā** becomes **bona**, and **rēginā**, **rēgina**.

2. In the paradigms, observe that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case endings.

3. **Examples for Practice.** — Like **mēnsa** and **bona** decline: **āla**, wing; **causa**, cause; **puella**, girl; **beāta**, happy; **longa**, long; **pulchra**, beautiful.

4. **Locative.** — Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in **ae**, denoting the Place In Which any thing is or is done: **Rōmae**, at Rome, **militiae**, in war. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **is**: **Athēnis**, at Athens.

5. **Exceptions in Gender.** — A few nouns in **a** are masculine by signification: **agricola**, husbandman; see 67, 1. **Hadria**, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also **damma**, deer, and **talpa**, mole.

6. **Article.** — The Latin has no article: **corōna**, crown, a crown, the crown.

7. **Original Case Endings** — The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	ā	a	āi	ae
Gen.	ās, āi	ae	āsom	ārum
Dat.	āi	ae	āis	is
Acc.	ām	am	āns or ās	ās
Abl.	ād	ā	āis	is

79. Of these original endings four are found in Latin writers:

1. **a** in the Nominative and Vocative singular in Plautus and Terence.

2. **ās** in the Genitive singular of **familia**, in composition with **pater**, **māter**, **filius** and **filia**: **paterfamilias**, father of a family.

3. **āi** in the Genitive singular in the poets: **aulāi**, afterwards **aulae**, of a hall.

4. *ad* in the Ablative singular in early Latin: *sententiā*, later *sententiā*, by the opinion.

80. Two other case endings, common in some other declensions, but rare in this, are

1. *um*¹ in the Genitive plural, chiefly in the poets: *agricolum* = *agricolārum*, of farmers; *Dardaniūm*, of the descendants of Dardanus.

2. *abus*² in the Dative and Ablative plural, especially in *dea*, goddess, and *filia*, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of *deus*, god, and *filius*, son: *deabus*, for the goddesses.

81. Greek Nouns. — Nouns of this declension in *ēs*, *ās*, and *ēs* are of Greek origin, but in the plural they have assumed the Latin declension, as seen in *mēnsa*. In the singular they are declined as follows:

	Epitomē, <i>epitome</i> .	Aenēās, <i>Aeneas</i> .	Pyrītēs, <i>pyrites</i> .
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	epitomē	Aenēās	pyrītēs
Voc.	epitomē	Aenēā	pyrītē, pyritā
Gen.	epitomēs	Aenēae	pyritae
Dat.	epitomaē	Aenēae	pyritae
Acc.	epitomēn	Aenēam, Aenēān	pyrītēn
Abl.	epitomē	Aenēā	pyrītē, pyritā

1. In nouns in *ēs* and *ās*, the stem ending *ā* is changed to *ē* in certain cases. The stem of *epitomē* is *epitomā*, of *Aenēās*, *Aenēā*, and of *pyrītēs*, *pyritā*.

2. Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending *a* and are declined like *mēnsa*. Many in *ēs* have also a form in *a*: *epitomē*, *epitoma*.

SECOND DECLENSION

O-NOUNS AND O-ADJECTIVES — STEMS IN O

82. Latin nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension end in *us*, in *r*, from which *us* has been dropped, or in *um*. Those in *us* and *r* are masculine, those in *um* neuter.

¹ This is the regular suffix in nouns of the Third and Fourth Declensions.

² *bus* in *ā-bus* is the regular suffix for these cases in the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions.

83. Nouns and adjectives in **us** and **um** are declined as follows

	Amicus, <i>friend.</i>	Bonus, <i>good.</i>	Templum, <i>temple.</i>	Bonum, <i>good.</i>
SINGULAR				
Nom.	amicus	bonus }	templum	bonum
Voc.	amice	bone }		
Gen.	amicī	bonī	templī	bonī
Dat.	amicō	bonō	templō	bonō
Acc.	amicum	bonum	templum	bonum
Abl.	amico	bono	templō	bono
PLURAL				
N. V.	amicī	bonī	templa	bona
Gen.	amicōrum	bonōrum	templōrum	bonōrum
Dat.	amicīs	bonīs	templīs	bonīs
Acc.	amicos	bonos	templa	bona
Abl.	amicīs	bonīs	templīs	bonīs

1. **Stem.**—In nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension, the stem ends in **o** with an ablaut form **e**, seen in the Vocative singular masculine. **O** becomes **u** in **us** and **um**. The stem of **amicus** is **amīco**, of **bonus** and **bonum**, **bono**, and of **templum**, **templo**. The Nominative masculine adds **s** and the neuter **m**: **amicu-s**, **templu-m**.

2. In the paradigms, observe that **bonus** is declined precisely like **amicus**, and **bonum** like **templum**.

3. Like **amicus** decline **dominus**, *master*; like **templum**, **bellum**, *war*; like **bonus**, **beātus**, *happy*; like **bonum**, **beātum**, *happy*.

4. **Locative.**—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in **i**: **Ephesi**, *at Ephesus*; **Corinthī**, *at Corinth*; **domi**, *at home*; **belli**, *in war*. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **is**: **Argis**, *at Argi*.

5. Genuine Latin Proper Names in **ius** and the word **filius** form the Vocative singular in **i** and accent the penult: **Mercu'ri**, *Mercury*; **fili**, *son*. Proper names in **lius** have **ēi** or **ei**: **Pompēi** or **Pompei**.

6. Nouns in **ius** and **ium** have in the Genitive singular **ī** or **i**, without a change of accent: **fi-lii**, **fi'-li**, *of a son*; **Clau-dīi**, **Clau'dī**, *of Claudius*; **inge-nīi**, **inge'-nī**, *of genius*. The latter form was in general use under the Republic, but the former became common in the age of Augustus; both are used in editions of classical authors. In proper names many editors retain the Genitive in **i**: **Pūbli Vergi'-li**, *of Publius Vergilius*.

7. **Deus**, *god*, lacks the Vocative singular in classical Latin, but is otherwise regular in that number. It is declined in the plural as follows:

N. V.	(deI) ⁺	diI	di
Gen.	deōrum, sometimes deum		
Acc.	deōs		
Dat. Abl.	(deīs)	dīs	dīs

NOTE. — The inclosed forms, though regular, are rarely used. **DI** is pronounced like **dī**, and **dīs** like **dīs**.

8. The three neuter nouns in **us**,¹ **pelagus**, *sea*, **vīrus**, *poison*, and **vulgus**, *the common people*, are declined in the singular as follows:

N. V. Acc.	pelagus	vīrus	vulgus
Gen.	pelagī	viri	vulgī
Dat. Abl.	pelagō	virō	vulgō

9. **Original Case Endings.** — The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

SINGULAR				
	Masculine		Neuter	
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
Nom.	os	us } ²	om	um
Voc.	e	e		
Gen.	ei	ī	ei	ī
Dat.	ōi	ō	ōi	ō
Acc.	om	um	om	um
Abl.	ōd	ō	ōd	ō
PLURAL				
N. V.	oi ³	ī	ā	a
Gen.	om	ōrum ⁴	om	ōrum ⁴
Dat.	ōis	īs	ōis	īs
Acc.	ōns	ōs	ā	a
Abl.	ōis	īs	ōis	īs

10. The original endings **os** and **om** were retained after **u** and **v** until the Augustan age: **ingenuos**, **ingenuom**, *free-born*; **servos**, **servom**, *slave*;

¹ These may have been originally **s**-stems which by the loss of **s** became **o**-stems. **Pelagus** is a Greek noun, and in general is used only in the singular, though **pelagō** occurs as an Acc. plur. **Vīrus** and **vulgus** are used only in the singular. **Vulgus** has a masculine Accusative, **vulgum**, in addition to the neuter form **vulgus**.

² The endings **us** and **e** are seen only in nouns and adjectives in **us**. In the masculine of nouns and adjectives in **r**, the Nominative has lost the ending **us**, and the Vocative is like the Nominative.

³ The final **i** is probably borrowed from the Pronominal Declension.

⁴ A later formation after the analogy of the Genitive ending **ārum**.

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equos, equom, horse; but during the reign of Augustus **us** and **um** became the common endings for all words of this class, though in some editions, especially of the earlier writers, **os** and **om** are still retained.

84. Old and Rare Case Endings:—The following occur¹:

1. **ōd** in the Ablative singular: **Gnaivōd**, later **Gnaeō**; **meritōd**, later **meritō**, from *merit*.

2. **ā** in the plural of neuters: **templā**, later **templa**.

3. **um** in the Genitive plural of certain nouns denoting money, weight, and measure: **talentum** = **talentōrum**, of *talents*; **sestertium** = **sestertiōrum**, of *sestercies*; also in a few other words: **liberum**, of *children*; **Argivum**, of the *Argives*.

85. Nouns and adjectives in **r** of the Second Declension have lost the case ending **us** in the Nominative singular, and are declined as follows:

	Puer, <i>boy.</i>	Liber, <i>free.</i>	Ager, <i>field.</i>	Ruber, <i>red.</i>
SINGULAR				
N. V.	puer	liber	ager	ruber
Gen.	puerī	liberī	agrī	rubrī
Dat.	puerō	liberō	agrō	rubrō
Acc.	puerum	liberum	agrum	rubrum
Abl.	puerō	liberō	agrō	rubrō
PLURAL				
N. V.	puerī	liberī	agrī	rubrī
Gen.	puerōrum	liberōrum	agrōrum	rubrōrum
Dat.	puerīs	liberīs	agrīs	rubrīs
Acc.	puerōs	liberōs	agrōs	rubrōs
Abl.	puerīs	liberīs	agrīs	rubrīs

1. In the paradigms, observe that **puer** and **ager** differ in declension from **amicus**, in dropping the ending **us** in the Nominative, and in forming no separate Vocative: Nom. **puer** from **puer-us**.

2. **Liber** is declined like **puer**, and **ruber** like **ager**.

3. The stem of **puer** is **puero**, of **liber**, **libero**, of **ager**, **agro**, and of **ruber**, **rubro**.

4. **Ager** was formed from **agros** thus: *agr-o-s, *agr-s, *ager-s, **ager**.²

¹ A few other endings occur in inscriptions.

² First **o** disappears, leaving **r** sonant, then **r** becomes **er**, *ager-s, and finally **s** disappears, leaving **ager**.

5. Like **puer** decline **gener**, *son-in-law*; like **ager**, **magister**, *master*; like **liber**, **miser**, *unhappy*; like **ruber**, **niger**, *black*.

86. Most nouns and adjectives in **r** of this declension are declined like **ager** and **ruber**, but the following nouns are declined like **puer**:

1. **Vir**, *man*, and its compounds: **vir**, **virī**, etc. **triumvir**, **triumvirī**, etc., *member of a triumvirate*.

2. Compounds in **fer** and **ger**: **armiger**, **armigerī**, *armor bearer*; **signifer**, **signiferī**, *standard bearer*.

3. **Adulter**, *adulterer*; **Celtibēr**,¹ *Celtiberian*; **gener**, *son-in-law*; **Hibēr**,¹ *Spaniard*; **Liber**, *Bacchus*; **liberī**, *children*; **Mulciber**,¹ *Vulcan*; **presbyter**, *elder*; **socer**, *father-in-law*; **vesper**, *evening*.

4. For Adjectives, thus declined, see 92.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

87. A few nouns in **us** are Feminine:

1. Most names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: **Aegyptus**, *Egypt*; **Corinthus**, *Corinth*; **Cyprus**, *Cyprus*; **pyrus**, *pear tree*.

2. A few words in **us** of Greek origin: **methodus**, *method*; **synodus**, *synod*; **diphthongus**, *diphthong*.

3. Five other words in **us**: **alvus**, *belly*; **carbasus**, *linen*; **colus**, *distaff*; **humus**, *ground*; **vannus**, *fan*.

88. Three nouns in **us** are Neuter: **pelagus**, *sea*; **virus**, *poison*; **vulgus**, *the common people*.

89. **Greek Nouns.** — Nouns of the second declension in **os**, **ōs**, generally masculine, and in **ol**, neuter, are of Greek origin. They are declined in the singular as follows:

	Dēlos, f., ²	Androgeōs,	Īlion,
	<i>Delos.</i>	<i>Androgeos.</i>	<i>Ilium.</i>
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	Dēlos }	Androgeōs	Īlion
Voc.	Dēle }		
Gen.	Dēī	Androgeō, Androgeī	Īliī
Dat.	Dēīō	Androgeō	Īliō
Acc.	Dēlon	Androgeōn, Androgeō	Īlion
Abl.	Dēīō	Androgeō	Īliō

¹ **Celtibēr** and **Hibēr** have **ē** long in the Genitive as in the Nominative, and **Mulciber** sometimes drops **e**.

² Observe that **Delos**, *the Island Delos*, is feminine by signification.

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1. The plural of nouns in **os** and **on** is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as **oe** in the Nominative plural, and **ōn** in the Genitive plural: **Arctoe**, *the constellation of the Bears*; **Theraeōn**, *of the Theraeans*.

2. In the paradigms, the stems are **Dēlo**, **Androgeō**, and **Īllo**.

3. Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in **us** and **um** and are declined like **amicus** and **templum**. Many in **os** and **on** have also a form in **us** and **um**, or at least assume the regular Latin forms in some of their cases.

4. For Greek nouns in **eus**, see **Orpheus**, 110.

5. **Panthūs** has Voc. **Panthū**. For **pelagus**, see 83, 8.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

90. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, as we have already seen, are declined like nouns of the same endings, but unlike nouns, each of these adjectives has three different forms, one for each of the three genders. Thus **bonus** is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, **bona** with feminine, and **bonum** with neuter: **bonus amicus**, *a good friend*; **bona rēgina**, *a good queen*; **bonum templum**, *a good temple*.

91. Comparative View of the three Forms representing the three Genders in Adjectives of this class.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Bonus, <i>good.</i>	bona, <i>good.</i>	bonum, <i>good.</i>
SINGULAR			
Nom.	bonus }	bona	bonum
Voc.	bone }		
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bonī
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō
PLURAL			
N. V.	bonī	bonae	bona
Gen.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
Dat.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Acc.	bonōs	bonās	bona
Abl.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Liber, <i>free.</i>	libera, <i>free.</i>	liberum, <i>free.</i>
SINGULAR			
N. V.	liber	libera	liberum
Gen.	liberī	liberae	liberī
Dat.	liberō	liberae	liberō
Acc.	liberum	liberam	liberum
Abl.	liberō	liberā	liberō
PLURAL			
N. V.	liberī	liberae	libera
Gen.	liberōrum	liberārum	liberōrum
Dat.	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs
Acc.	liberōs	liberās	libera
Abl.	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Ruber, <i>red.</i>	rubra, <i>red.</i>	rubram, <i>red.</i>
SINGULAR			
N. V.	ruber	rubra	rubrum
Gen.	rubrī	rubrae	rubrī
Dat.	rubrō	rubrae	rubrō
Acc.	rubrum	rubram	rubrum
Abl.	rubrō	rubrā	rubrō
PLURAL			
N. V.	rubrī	rubrae	rubra
Gen.	rubrōrum	rubrārum	rubrōrum
Dat.	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs
Acc.	rubrōs	rubrās	rubra
Abl.	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs

1. In the paradigms observe that in the masculine **bonus** is declined like **amicus**, **liber** like **puer**, and **ruber** like **ager**, and that in the feminine and neuter all the examples are declined alike: **bona**, **libera**, **rubra** like **mēnsa**; **bonum**, **liberum** and **rubrum** like **templum**, and that all these forms contain the full stem, while in the masculine **liber** and **ruber** lose the stem vowel **o** in the Nominative and Vocative singular.

2. Adjectives in **ius**, unlike nouns with this ending, always have **ie** and **ii** in the Vocative and Genitive singular: **ēgregius**, *excellent*; **ēgregie**, **ēgregii**.

92. Most adjectives in *r* of the Second Declension are declined like *ruber*, but the following are declined like *liber* :

1. **Satur**, *sated*; *satur, satura, saturum*.
2. Compounds in **fer** and **ger**: *mortifer, deadly*; *ali-ger, winged*.
3. **Asper**, *rough*; **dexter**, *right*; **lacer**, *torn*; **miser**, *wretched*; **prosper**, *prosperous*; **tener**, *tender*; but **asper** and **dexter** are sometimes declined like *ruber*: *asper, aspra, asprum*; *dexter, dextra, dextrum*.

93. **Irregularities.** — The following nine adjectives have in the singular *ius* in the Genitive and *i* in the Dative :

ſſus	<i>ſſa</i>	<i>ſſum</i>	<i>one, alone</i>	alius	<i>alia</i>	<i>aliud</i>	<i>another</i>
sſlus	<i>sſla</i>	<i>sſlum</i>	<i>alone</i>	alter	<i>altera</i>	<i>alterum</i>	<i>the other</i>
tſtus	<i>tſta</i>	<i>tſtum</i>	<i>whole</i>	uter	<i>utra</i>	<i>utrum</i>	<i>which</i>
ſllus	<i>ſlla</i>	<i>ſllum</i>	<i>any</i>	neuter	<i>neutra</i>	<i>neutrum</i>	<i>neither</i>
nſllus	<i>nſlla</i>	<i>nſllum</i>	<i>not any</i>				

1. The endings *ius*, *i*, and *ud*, as in *ali-ud*, are regular endings in the Pronominal Declension, from which they are borrowed; see *ist-ius*, *ist-i*, *ist-ud* (179).

2. **Alius**, regular in the plural, has one or two special irregularities in the singular, as follows :

Nom.	alius	<i>alia</i>	<i>aliud</i>
Gen.	alius	<i>alius</i>	<i>alius</i>
Dat.	aliſ	<i>aliſ</i>	<i>aliſ</i>
Acc.	alium	<i>aliam</i>	<i>aliud</i>
Abl.	aliſ	<i>aliā</i>	<i>aliſ</i>

3. **Alius**, for **alius** by contraction, is rare; its place is sometimes supplied by **alterius**, the Genitive of *alter*, and sometimes by **alienus**, *belonging to another*.

4. In the rest of these adjectives, the irregularity is confined to the Genitive and Dative endings, *ius* and *i*, but *i* in *ius* is often shortened by the poets; regularly in **alterius** in dactylic verse.

5. The regular forms occasionally occur in the Genitive and Dative singular of some of these adjectives.

6. Like *uter* are declined its compounds: **uterque**, **utervſ**, **uterlibet**, **utercunque**, but *i* is short in **utriusque**.

7. In **alter uter**, both parts are declined: **alterius utrius**, but in **alter-uter**, only the latter part is declined: **alterutrius**.

¹ **Alis** for **allus** and **alid** for **aliud**, from the stem *ali* seen in **aliquis**, *some one*, are rare.

THIRD DECLENSION

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES — STEMS IN A CONSONANT AND STEMS IN I

94. The Third Declension, like the First and Second, contains both nouns and adjectives.

Nouns of the Third Declension

95. Nouns of the Third Declension may be conveniently divided into four classes:

- I. Nouns with Consonant Stems.
- II. Nouns with I-Stems.
- III. Nouns with Consonant and I-Stems combined.
- IV. Special Paradigms.¹

I. — CONSONANT STEMS

96. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

Princeps, m., *leader, chief.*

SINGULAR			
			Case Suffixes
N. V.	princeps	<i>a leader, O leader</i>	s
Gen.	principis	<i>of a leader</i>	is
Dat.	principi	<i>to, for a leader</i>	i
Acc.	principem	<i>a leader</i>	em
Abl.	principe	<i>with, from, by a leader</i>	e
PLURAL			
N. V.	principes	<i>leaders, O leaders</i>	ēs
Gen.	principum	<i>of leaders</i>	um
Dat.	principibus	<i>to, for leaders</i>	ibus
Acc.	principes	<i>leaders</i>	ēs
Abl.	principibus	<i>with, from, by leaders</i>	ibus

1. **Stem and Case Suffixes.** — In this paradigm observe that the stem is **princip**, which becomes **princep** in the Nominative singular, and that the case suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem.

2. **Variable Vowel.** — In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short **e** or **i** generally takes the form of **e** in the Nominative and Vocative singular and that of **i** in all the other cases. Thus **princeps, principis,**

¹ For Gender, see 111-124.

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mīles, mīlītis (97), and **carmen, carminis** (100) all have **e** in the Nominative and Vocative singular and **i** in all the other cases. See also **opus, operis** (101).

3. In monosyllables in **bs** the stem ends in **b, bi**; see **urbs, 105**.

4. For the Locative in this declension, see 108.

97. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

	Lapis, m., <i>stone.</i>	Aetās, f., <i>age.</i>	Mīles, m., <i>soldier.</i>
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Gen.	lapidis	aetātis	mīlītis
Dat.	lapidi	aetātī	mīlītī
Acc.	lapidem	aetātē	mīlitem
Abl.	lapide	aetātē	mīlite
	PLURAL		
N. V.	lapidēs	aetātēs	mīlītēs
Gen.	lapidum	aetātum	mīlitum
Dat.	lapidibus	aetātibus	mīlidibus
Acc.	lapidēs	aetātēs	mīlītēs
Abl.	lapidibus	aetātibus	mīlitibus
	Nepōs, m., <i>grandson.</i>	Virtūs, f., <i>virtue.</i>	Caput, n., <i>head.</i>
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	nepōs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepōtis	virtūtis	capitis
Dat.	nepōtī	virtūtī	capitī
Acc.	nepōtem	virtutē	caput
Abl.	nepōte	virtute	capite
	PLURAL		
N. V.	nepōtēs	virtūtēs	capita
Gen.	nepōtum	virtūtum	capitum
Dat.	nepōtibus	virtūtibus	capitibus
Acc.	nepōtēs	virtūtēs	capita
Abl.	nepōtibus	virtūtibus	capitibus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **lapid, aetāt, mīlīt, nepōt, virtūt, and capit**, and that the case suffixes are the same as those given for labial nouns, except in the neuter **caput**, which has in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative no case suffix in the singular and **a** in the plural.

2. *Miles* has the variable vowel *e*, *i*, and *caput*, *u*, *i*.
 3. Like *nepōs* are declined, *cōs*, *whetstone*; *dōs*, *dowry*; *sacerdōs*, *priest*. For *flōs*, *flōris*, see 101.
 4. Like *virtūs* are declined *iuventūs*, *youth*; *salūs*, *safety*; *senectūs*, *old age*; *servitūs*, *servitude*. For *iūs*, *iūris*, see 101.
 5. The Nominative of masculine and feminine nouns is formed by adding *s* to the stem. The dental, *d* or *t*, disappears before *s*: see 63, 1.
 6. Neuters in *a*, stem in *at*, are of Greek origin; see 110, 5.

98. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

	Dux, m., and f., <i>leader.</i>	Rādīx, f., <i>root.</i>	Rēx, m., <i>king.</i>	
	SINGULAR			Case Suffixes
N. V.	dux	rādīx	rēx	s
Gen.	ducis	rādīcis	rēgis	is
Dat.	duci	rādīci	rēgi	i
Acc.	ducem	rādīcem	rēgem	em
Abl.	duce	rādīce	rēge	e
	PLURAL			
N. V.	ducēs	rādīcēs	rēgēs	ēs
Gen.	ducum	rādīcum	rēgum	um
Dat.	ducibus	rādīcibus	rēgibus	ibus
Acc.	ducēs	rādīcēs	rēgēs	ēs
Abl.	ducibus	rādīcibus	rēgibus	ibus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are *duc*, *rādīc*, and *rēg*, that the case suffixes are the same as those given in 96, and that *s* in the Nominative singular unites with *c* or *g* of the stem and forms *x*, as *duc-s*, *dux*; *rēg-s*, *rēx*.

99. Stems ending in a Liquid: L or R.

	Cōnsul, m., <i>consul.</i>	Passer, m., <i>sparrow.</i>	Pater, m., <i>father.</i>
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	cōnsul	passer	pater
Gen.	cōnsulis	passeris	patrie
Dat.	cōnsuli	passeri	patri
Acc.	cōnsulem	passerem	patrem
Abl.	cōnsule	passere	patre

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PLURAL

N. V.	cōsulēs	passerēs	patrēs
Gen.	cōsulūm	passerūm	patrūm
Dat.	cōsulībus	passerībus	patrībus
Acc.	cōsulēs	passerēs	patrēs
Abl.	cōsulībus	passerībus	patrībus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **cōnsul**, **passer**, and **pater**, **patr**,¹ and that they do not take **s** in the Nominative singular.

2. **Passer, Pater.** — Most nouns in **er** are declined like **passer**, but those in **ter**, with a very few exceptions, are declined like **pater**.

3. Four stems in **or** have the variable vowel, **o**, **u**: **ebur**, **ebor-is**, *ivory*; **femur**, *thigh*; **iecur**, *liver*; **rōbur**, *strength*.

100. Stems ending in a Nasal: M or N.

Hiems, f., <i>winter.</i>	Leō, m., <i>lion.</i>	Virgō, f., <i>maiden.</i>	Carmen, n., <i>song.</i>
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SINGULAR

N. V.	hiems	leō	virgō	carmen
Gen.	hiemis	leōnis	virginis	carminis
Dat.	hiemi	leōni	virgini	carmini
Acc.	hiemem	leōnem	virginem	carmen
Abl.	hieme	leōne	virgine	carmine

PLURAL

N. V.	hiemēs	leōnēs	virginēs	carmina
Gen.	hiemum	leōnum	virginum	carminum
Dat.	hiemībus	leōnībus	virginībus	carminībus
Acc.	hiemēs	leōnēs	virginēs	carmina
Abl.	hiemībus	leōnībus	virginībus	carminībus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **hiem**, **leōn**, **virgon**, **virgin**,² and **carmen**.² that **hiem**, the only stem in **m**, takes **s** in the Nominative and Vocative singular, while stems in **n** take no suffix in those cases, that **leōn** and **virgon** drop **n**, and that **virgō** has the variable vowel **o**, **i**, and **carmen**, **e**, **i**.

2. **Leō and Virgō.** — Most nouns in **ō** are declined like **leō**, but those in **dō** and **gō**, with a few others, are declined like **virgō**.

3. For the Locative in this declension, see 108.

¹ The suffix **ter** in **pa-ter** has a weak form **tr**; hence the stem **pa-ter** has a weak form **pa-tr**; see ablaut forms, 21, 325, and 326.

² The stem **virgin** was originally **virgen**; **carmen** becomes **carmin**.

THIRD DECLENSION

101. Stems ending in S.

	Flōs, m., <i>flower.</i>	Iūs, n., <i>right.</i>	Opus, n., <i>work.</i>	Corpus, ¹ n., <i>body.</i>
	SINGULAR			
N. V.	flōs	iūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	flōris	iūris	operis	corporis
Dat.	flōri	iūri	operi	corpori
Acc.	flōrem	iūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flōre	iūre	opere	corpore
	PLURAL			
N. V.	flōrēs	iūra	opera	corpora
Gen.	flōrum	iūrum	operum	corporum
Dat.	flōribus	iūribus	operibus	corporibus
Acc.	flōrēs	iūra	opera	corpora
Abl.	flōribus	iūribus	operibus	corporibus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **flōs**, **iūs**, **opus**, **corpos**, th the Nominative and Vocative singular take no suffix, that **s** of the stem becomes **r** between two vowels: **flōs**, **flōris**, and that **opus** has the variable vowel **e**, **u**, and **corpus**, **o**, **u**.

2. Like **flōs** are declined **glōs**, *sister-in-law*; **mōs**, *custom*; **rōs**, *dev.* For **nepōs**, see 97.

3. Like **iūs** is declined **crūs**, *leg.* Note also **mūs**, **mūris**, *mouse*; **tellūs**, **tellūris**, *earth*.

4. Like **opus** are declined **foedus**, **fūnus**, **genus**, **glomus**, **latus**, **mūnus**, **onus**, **pondus**, **rūdus**, **scelus**, **sīdus**, **ulcus**, **vellus**, **viscus**, **vulnus**. Note also **Venus**, **Veneris**, feminine.

5. Like **corpus** are declined **decus**, **dēdecus**, **facinus**, **faenus**, **frīgus**, **litus**, **nemus**, **pectus**, **pecus**, **tempus**, **tergus**.

6. A few stems in **ōs** finally became **r**-stems, as the **r** of the oblique cases gradually usurped the place of the original **s** in the Nominative singular: **honōs**, **honōris**; **honor**, **honōris**.

7. A few nouns in **ēs**, as **clādēs**, **fidēs**, **nūbēs**, **sēdēs**, etc., lose the original **s** of the stem in the oblique cases and assume some of the characteristics of **i**-stems; see 105.

¹ **Opus** and **corpus** are both inflected from stems formed by means of an Indo-European suffix with the ablaut forms **os**, **es**; the form **os**, weakened to **us**, when final, is the basis of the inflection of **corpus**; the form **os**, weakened to **us**, is also seen in the Nom., Voc., and Acc. sing. of **opus**, but the form **es** appears in all the other cases.

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II. — I-STEMS

102. Stems ending in I. — Nouns in **is** and **ēs**, not increasing in the Genitive.

Tussis, f., <i>cough.</i>	Nāvis, f., <i>ship.</i>	Īgnis, m., <i>fire.</i>	Auris, f., <i>ear.</i>
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	SINGULAR				Case Endings
N. V.	tussis	nāvis	īgnis	auris	is
Gen.	tussis	nāvis	īgnis	auris	is
Dat.	tussī	nāvī	ignī	aurī	i
Acc.	tussim	nāvim, nāvem	ignem	aurem	im, em
Abl.	tussī	nāvī, nāve	ignī, igne	aure	i, e
	PLURAL				
N. V.	tussēs	nāvēs	ignēs	aurēs	ēs
Gen.	tussium	nāvium	ignium	aurium	ium
Dat.	tussibus	nāvibus	ignibus	auribus	ibus
Acc.	tussēs	nāvēs	ignēs	aurēs	ēs
	tussis	nāvis	ignis	auris	is
Abl.	tussibus	nāvibus	ignibus	auribus	ibus.

1. Stems and Case Endings. — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **tussī**, **nāvī**, **ignī**, and **aurī**, that the case endings contain the characteristic **i**, and that **tussis**, **nāvis**, **ignis**, and **auris** differ in declension only in the Accusative and Ablative singular, **tussis** showing the final **i** of the stem in both of these cases, **nāvis** sometimes in both, **ignis** sometimes in the Ablative but not in the Accusative, **auris** in neither.

2. Like **tussis** — Acc. **im**, Abl. **i** — are declined **būris**, *plow-tail*; **sitis**, *thirst*, and in the singular, names of rivers and towns in **is**, with the Genitive in **is**: **Albis**, *the Elbe*; **Tiberis**, *the Tiber*; **Hispalis**, *Seville*; **Nepolis**, *Naples*.

3. Like **nāvis** — Acc. **im**, **em**, Abl. **i**, **e** — are declined the feminines **clāvis**, *key*; **febris**, *fever*; **messis**, *harvest*; **pelvis**, *basin*; **puppis**, *stern*; **restis**, *rope*; **secūris**, *axe*; **sēmentis**, *sowing*; **turris**, *tower*; **strigilis**, *strigil*.

NOTE. — **Araris**, or **Arax**, for **Araris**, *the Saone*, and **Liger**, for **Ligeris**, *the Loire*, have Acc. **im**, **em**, Abl. **i**, **e**.

4. Like **ignis** — Acc. **em**, Abl. **i**, **e** — are declined: **amnis**, *river*; **avis**, *bird*; **bilis**, *bile*; **clivis**, *citizen*; **classis**, *fleet*; **collis**, *hill*; **finis**, *end*; **orbis**, *circle*; **postis**, *post*; **unguis**, *nail*; and a few others.

5. Like **auris** — Acc. **em**, Abl. **e** — are declined all nouns in **is**, Gen. **is**, not provided for under 2, 3, and 4, except **canis**, *dog*, and **juvenis**, *a youth*,

consonant stems which have assumed *i* in the Nominative singular. *Apis*, *bee*; *mānsis*, *month*; and *volucris*, *bird*, often have *um* for *ium* in the Genitive.

6. Adjectives which have *i* in the Ablative generally retain *i* when used substantively, as in the names of months, etc.: *Septembri*, in *September*; *Octōbri*, in *October*; *ā familiārī*, from a friend. But adjectives used as proper names take *e*: *Iuvenālis*, *Iuvenāle*, *Juvenal*.

103. Stems ending in *i*. — Neuters in *e*, *at*, and *ar*.

	Cubile, <i>couch</i> .	Animal, <i>animal</i> .	Calcar, <i>spur</i> .	Case Endings
	SINGULAR			
N. V.	cubile	animal	calcar	e —
Gen.	cubilis	animālis	calcāris	is
Dat.	cubilī	animālī	calcārī	i
Acc.	cubile	animal	calcar	e —
Abl.	cubilī	animālī	calcārī	i
	PLURAL			
N. V.	cubilia	animālia	calcāria	ia
Gen.	cubiliūm	animālīūm	calcārīūm	ium
Dat.	cubilibus	animālībus	calcārībus	ibus
Acc.	cubilia	animālia	calcāria	ia
Abl.	cubilibus	animālībus	calcārībus	ibus

1. **Paradigms.** — Observe that the stem ending *i* is changed to *e* in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative singular of *cubile*, and dropped in the same cases of *animal*, for *animāle, and *calcar*, for *calcāre; see 26, 1, and 40, 1; and that the case endings include the stem ending *i*.

2. A few nouns have *e* in the Ablative singular, as names of towns in *e*: *Prænestē*; generally *rēte*, *net*, and in poetry sometimes *mare*.

3. Neuters in *ar*, *aris*, with *a* short in the Genitive, are consonant stems: *nectar*, *nectaris*, *nectar*.

III. — CONSONANT AND *i*-STEMS COMBINED

104. This class of Latin nouns was produced by a fusion of consonant and *i*-stems. It consists of *i*-stems which have lost the final *i* in the singular and of consonant stems which have assumed *i* in the plural.

105. Nouns in **ēs** and nouns in **s** and **x** generally preceded by a consonant.

Nūbēs, f., <i>cloud.</i>	Urbs, f., <i>city.</i>	Arx, f., <i>citadel.</i>
-----------------------------	---------------------------	-----------------------------

SINGULAR

N. V.	nūbēs	urbs	arx ¹
Gen.	nūbīs	urbīs	arcīs
Dat.	nūbī	urbī	arcī
Acc.	nūbem	urbem	arcem
Abl.	nūbe	urbe	arce

PLURAL

N. V.	nūbēs	urbēs	arcēs
Gen.	nūbium	urbium	arcium
Dat.	nūbibus	urbibus	arcibus
Acc.	{ nūbēs nūbīs	{ urbēs urbīs	{ arcēs arcīs
Abl.	nūbibus	urbibus	arcibus

1. **Paradigms.**—Observe that these nouns are declined in the singular like consonant stems, and in the plural like **i**-stems.

106. To this class belong the following nouns:

1. Nouns in **ēs**, Gen. in **īs**: **caedēs**, *slaughter*; **clādēs**, *disaster*; **sēdēs**, *seat*; **struēs**, *heap*; **subolēs**, *sprout*, although several of these are occasionally used as consonant stems, and a very few are generally so used, as **ambāgēs** (pl.), *roundabout way*; **prolē**s, *offspring*; **sēdēs**; **subolēs**; and **vātēs**, *soothsayer*.

2. Most nouns in **ns** and **rs**²: **cliēns**, *client*; **cohors**, *cohort*.

3. Monosyllables in **s** and **x** preceded by a consonant³: **urbs**, *city*; **arx**, *citadel*.

4. A few monosyllables in **s** and **x** preceded by a vowel: **dōs**, *dowry*; **glīs**, *dormouse*; **līs**, *strife*; **mās**, *a male*; **nox**, *night*; **vīs**, *force*, and generally **fraus**, *fraud*, and **mūs**, *mouse*, and sometimes **laus**, *praise*.

5. Generally Patrial Nouns in **ās**, **īs**, plural in **ātēs** and **itēs**: **Arpīnās**, pl. **Arpīnātēs**, *the Arpinates*; **Samnīs**, pl. **Samnītēs**, *the Samnites*.

6. **Optimātēs**, *the aristocracy*; **penātēs**, *the household gods*; sometimes nouns in **tās**: **cīvītās**, *state*, Gen. pl. **cīvītātum**, sometimes **cīvītātium**.

¹ **X** in **arx** = **cs**. **C** belongs to the stem, and **s** is the case suffix.

² Some of these often have **um** in poetry, and sometimes even in prose, as **parēns**, *parent*, generally has.

³ Except (**ops**), **opīs**, *help*, and a few Greek words.

NOTE.—**Carō**, *flesh*; **imber**, *storm*; **linter**, *boat*; **ŭter**, *leathern sack*; and **venter**, *belly*, have **um** in the Genitive plural like **i**-stems.

IV.—SPECIAL PARADIGMS

107. **Sūs**, m. and f., **Bōs**, m. and f., **Nix**, f., **Senex**, m., **Vīs**, f.,
 * *swine.* *ox, cow.* *snow.* *old man.* *force.*

SINGULAR

N. V.	sūs	bōs	nix	senex	vīs
Gen.	suis	bovis	nivis	senis	vīs ¹
Dat.	sui	bovī	nivī	senī	vī ¹
Acc.	suem	bovem	nivem	senem	vīr
Abl.	sue	bove	nive	sene	vī

PLURAL

N. V.	suēs	bovēs	nivēs	senēs	virēs
Gen.	suum	{ bovum boum	nivium	senum	virium
Dat.	{ sui bus subus	{ bōbus būbus	nivibus	senibus	viribus
Acc.	suēs	bovēs	nivēs	senēs	virēs
Abl.	{ sui bus subus	{ bōbus būbus	nivibus	senibus	viribus

1. **Stems**.—In the paradigms observe that the stems of **sūs** and **bōs** are **sū** and **bou**; that the diphthong **ou** of the stem **bou** becomes **ō** in **bōs** and **bōbus**, **ū** in **būbus**, and **ov** in the other forms; that the stem **nigv** unites with **s** and forms **nix**; that it becomes **niv** in the other forms of the singular, and assumes **i** in the plural; and that **senex** is declined from two stems, **senec** and **sen**, and **vīs** from two, **vī** and **vīsi**, which becomes **vīri**.

2. **Sūs** and **grūs**, *crane*, the only **ū**-stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative plural, where **grūs** is regular, **gruibus**.

3. **Iuppiter** (*Iou-piter*; *piter* = *pater*) is thus declined: **Iuppiter**, **Iovis**, **Iovi**, **Iovem**, **Iove**. The stem **Iou** became **Iū** in **Iū-piter**, which finally became **Iuppiter**, but it became **Iov** in the oblique cases.

4. **Case Suffixes and Case Endings**.—The following are the original case suffixes and case endings for masculine and feminine nouns, with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

¹ The Genitive and Dative singular, **vīs** and **vī**, are rare.

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	For Consonant Stems		For I-Stems	
	SINGULAR			
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	s	s	i-s	is
Gen.	es	is	—	is ²
Dat.	ai	i	ei	i
Acc.	em	em	i-m	im ³
Abl.	i	e	i-d	i
	PLURAL			
N. V.	—	ēs ¹	ei-es	ēs
Gen.	om	um	i-om	ium
Dat.	—	ibus ¹	i-bhos	ibus
Acc.	ens	ēs	i-ns	is ³
Abl.	—	ibus ¹	i-bhos	ibus

NOTE. — In this table observe that consonant stems borrow the endings **ēs** and **ibus** of the Nominative, Dative, and Ablative plural from i-stems, and that i-stems borrow the ending **is** of the Genitive singular from consonant stems.

5. Neuter nouns have the same case suffixes and endings as masculines and feminines, except in the Nominative and Accusative, where, if consonant stems, they take no suffix in the singular, and the suffix **a**, from an original **ā**, in the plural, and if i-stems, they have the ending **e**, from an original **i**, in the singular, and **ia**, from an original **iā**, in the plural.

6. Early and Rare Endings. — The following occur:

es and **us** in the Gen. sing.: **salūtes** = **salūtis**; **hominus** = **hominis**.

e in the Dat. sing.: **aere** = **aerī**; **Mārte** = **Mārti**

id in the Abl. sing.: **marīd** = **marī**.

eis and **is** in the Nom. plur.: **cīveis** and **cīvīs** = **cīvēs**.

eis in the Acc. plur.: **cīveis** = **cīvēs** or **cīvīs**.

LOCATIVE CASE

108. Many names of towns have a Locative singular in **i** or **e**, denoting the Place in Which any thing is or is done: **Carthāgini**, or **Carthāgine**, at *Carthage*; **Tiburī**, or **Tibure**, at *Tibur*. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **ibus**: **Gādibus**, at *Gades*.

¹ Borrowed from i-stems.

² Borrowed from consonant stems.

³ But i-stems often borrow from consonant stems the endings **em** and **ēs** for **im** and **is**.

GREEK NOUNS

109. Many Greek nouns of the Third Declension are entirely regular, but some retain certain peculiarities of the Greek, especially the following Greek forms:

1. A Vocative singular like the stem: **Pari-s, Pari; Orpheu-s, Orpheu.**
2. A Genitive singular in **os**: **Fallas, Palladis, Pallados.**
3. An Accusative singular in **a**: **Pallada.**
4. A Nominative plural in **es**: **Arcades.**
5. An Accusative plural in **as**: **Arcadas.**

110. The following examples illustrate these peculiarities:

	Lampas, f, <i>torch.</i>	Phryx, m. and f., <i>Phrygian.</i>	Hērōs, m., <i>hero.</i>
		SINGULAR	
N. V.	lampas	Phryx	hērōs
Gen.	lampadis, lampados	Phrygis	hērōis
Dat.	lampadī	Phrygī	hērōī
Acc.	lampadem, lampada	Phrygem, Phryga,	hērōem, hērōa
Abl.	lampade	Phryge	hērōe
		PLURAL	
N. V.	lampadēs, lampades	Phrygēs, Phryges	hērōēs, hērōes
Gen.	lampadum	Phrygum	hērōum
Dat.	lampadibus	Phrygibus	hērōibus
Acc.	lampadēs, lampadas	Phrygēs, Phrygas	hērōēs, hērōas
Abl.	lampadibus	Phrygibus	hērōibus
	Cotys, m.	Paris, m.	Orpheus, m.
		SINGULAR ¹	
Nom.	Cotys	Paris	Orpheus
Voc.	Coty	Parī	Orpheu
Gen.	Cotyis	Paridis	Orpheī, Orpheos
Dat.	Cotyī	Paridī	Orpheō, Orpheī
Acc.	Cotym	Paridem, Parim, Parin	Orpheum, Orpheā
Abl.	Cotye	Paride, Parī	Orpheō

1. In these paradigms the stems are **lampad, Phryg, hērō, Coty, Parid, Pari, and Orpheu.**

¹ As proper names, these words have only the singular in general use.

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2. Observe that these paradigms fluctuate in certain cases between the Latin and the Greek forms: **Lampadís**, *lampados*; **hērōēs**, *hērōas*; and between different declensions: between Decl. II., **Orpheí**, **Orpheō**, **Orpheum**, and Decl. III., **Orpheu**, **Orpheos**, **Orpheí**, **Orpheá**.

3. Greek feminines in **ō** may be declined either with **ūs** in the Genitive and with **ō** in the other cases, as **Didō**, **Didūs**, **Didō**, etc., or regularly from the stem in **ōn**, as **Didō**, **Didōnis**, **Didōnī**, **Didōnem**, **Didōne**.

4. Nouns in **clēs** are declined as follows: **Periclēs**: Voc. **Periclēs**, **Periclē**; Gen. **Periclís**, **Periclī**; Dat. **Periclī**, or **Periclī**; Acc. **Periclem**, **Periclēn**, or **Pericleá**; Abl. **Pericle**.

5. Greek neuters in **a**, Gen. in **atis** or **atos**, often have **is** for **ibus** in the Dative and Ablative plural, and sometimes **ōrum** for **um** in the Genitive plural: **poēma**, *poem*; **poēmatís** or **poēmatibus**; **poēmatōrum** or **poēmatum**.

6. Vocative Singular. — Greek nouns in **is**, **ys**, and **eus** generally have the Vocative singular like the stem, as in the paradigms; but those in **ās**, Gen. in **antis**, have the Vocative in **ā**: **Atlās**, **Atlā**.

7. In the Genitive plural, the ending **ōn** occurs in a few titles of books: **Metamorphōsēs** (title of a poem), **Metamorphōseōn**.

8. In the Dative and Ablative plural the ending **sin**, occurs in poetry: **Troadēs**, **Troasin**.

9. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative have **os** in the singular and **ō** in the plural: **melos**, **melē**, *song*.

GENDER AS DETERMINED BY THE ENDINGS OF NOUNS

I. Masculines

111. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **ō**, **or**, **ōs**, **er**, and **es**, are masculine:

Sermō, *discourse*; **dolor**, *pain*; **mōs**, *custom*; **agger**, *mound*; **gurgēs**, *whirlpool*.

112. Nouns in **ō** are masculine, except those in **dō** and **gō**, and abstract and collective nouns in **iō**, most of which are feminine; see 116.

1. **Carō**, *flesh*, and the Greek **Argō** and **ēchō** are feminine.

113. Nouns in **or** and **ōs** are masculine, except

1. The Feminines: **arbor**, **arbōs**, *tree*; **cōs**, *whetstone*; **dōs**, *dowry*.

2. The Neuters: **ador**, *spelt*; **aequor**, *sea*; **cor**, *heart*; **marmor**, *marble*; **ōs**, *mouth*.

114. Nouns in **er** and **es** are masculine, except

1. The Feminines: **linter**, *boat*; **merges**, *sheaf*; **seges**, *crop*; **teges**, *mat*.
2. The Neuters: **cadāver**, *corpse*; **iter**, *way*; **tūber**, *tumor*; **ūber**, *udder*; a few names of trees and plants in **er**: **acer**, *maple tree*; **papāver**, *poppy*.

NOTE. — **Aes**, *copper*, and **vēr**, *spring*, are neuter.

II. Feminines

115. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **dō**, **gō**, **iō**; **ās**, **ēs**, **is**, **ūs**, **ys**, **z**, and in **s** preceded by a consonant are feminine:

Grandō, *hail*; **origō**, *origin*; **ratio**, *reason*; **cōntiō**, *an assembly*; **aetās**, *age*; **nūbēs**, *cloud*; **nāvis**, *ship*; **virtūs**, *virtue*; **chlamys**, *cloak*; **pāx**, *peace*; **urbs**, *city*.

116. Nouns in **dō** and **gō**, and abstract and collective nouns in **iō**, are feminine, except **cardō**, *hinge*; **ōrdō**, *rank*; **harpagō**, *grappling hook*; **ligō**, *mattock*; **margō**, *border*, which are masculine.

NOTES. — 1. Twenty-five or thirty nouns in **iō**, chiefly denoting material objects, are masculine, as **pugiō**, *pontard*; **ūniō**, *pearl*; **pāpiliō**, *butterfly*.

2. Nouns in **dō**, **gō**, and **iō** are exceedingly numerous, nearly three hundred in all.

117. Nouns in **ās** and **ēs** are feminine, except

1. The Masculines: **ās**, *the as, a coin*; **acīnacēs**, *scimitar*; **celēs**, *a racer*; **lebēs**, *chaldron*; **māgnēs**, *magnet*; **pariēs**, *wall*; **pēs**, *foot*; **quadrupēs**, *quadruped*; **veprēs**, *thorn bush*; and Greek nouns in **ās**, Gen. in **antis**: **adamās**, *adamant*.

2. The Neuter: **vās**, *vessel*.

NOTE. — Most nouns in **as**, Gen. in **adis**, are feminine, but **dromas**, *dromedary*, and **vas**, *surety*, are masculine.

118. Nouns in **is** are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. Nouns in **nis** and **guis**: **ignis**, *fire*; **sanguis**, *blood*.
2. Nouns in **is**, Gen. in **eris**: **cucumis**, *cucumber*; **pulvis**, *dust*; **vōmis**, *plowshare*.

3. The following:

axis, *axle*
būris, *plow tail*
caulis, *stalk*
collis, *hill*
ēnsis, *sword*

fascis, *bundle*
fūstis, *cudgel*
lapis, *stone*
mēnsis, *month*
orbis, *circle*

piscis, *fish*
postis, *post*
sentis, *brier*
torris, *brand*
vectis, *lever*

4. Sometimes a few other nouns in **is**.

NOTE. — Nouns in **is** are very numerous, nearly one hundred and fifty in all.

119. Nouns in **ūs** and **ys** are feminine, except

1. The Masculines: **mūs**, *mouse*, Greek nouns in **pūs**: **tripūs**, *tripod*, and names of mountains in **ys**: **Othrys**.

2. The Neuters: **crūs**, *leg*; **iūs**, *right*; **pūs**, *pus*; **rūs**, *the country*; **tūs**, *incense*.

NOTE. — **Fraus**, *fraud*, and **laus**, *praise*, are feminine.

120. Nouns in **x** are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. Greek Masculines: **corax**, *raven*; **thōrāx**, *cuirass*.

2. Nouns in **ex**, except the feminines: **forīex**, *shears*; **imbrex**, *hollow tile*; **nex**, *death*; **supellex**, *furniture*.

3. **Calix**, *cup*; **formix**, *arch*; **phoenix**, *phoenix*; **trādūx**, *vinelayer*, and a few nouns in **yx**.

121. Nouns in **a** preceded by a consonant are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. **Dēns**, *tooth*; **tōns**, *fountain*; **mōns**, *mountain*; **pōns**, *bridge*; generally, **adeps**, *fat*; and **rudēns**, *cable*.

2. Some nouns in **ns**, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: **oriēns** (*sōl*), *east*; **cōnfluēns** (*amnis*), *confluence*; **tri-dēns** (*rāster*), *trident*; **quadrāns** (*ās*), *quarter*.

3. Sometimes **forceps**, *forceps*; **serpēns**, *serpent*; **stirps**, *stock*.

III. Neuters

122. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **a**, **e**, **i**, **y**, **c**, **l**, **n**, **t**, **ar**, **ur**, and **us** are neuter:

Poēma, *poem*; **mare**, *sea*; **sināpī**, *mustard*; **misy**, *kind of mushroom*; **lāc**, *milk*; **animal**, *animal*; **carmen**, *song*; **caput**, *head*; **nectar**, *nectar*; **ebur**, *ivory*; **corpus**, *body*.

123. Nouns in **l**, **n**, and **ar** are neuter, except **mūgil**, *mullet*; **sāl**, *salt*; **sōl**, *sun*; **pecten**, *comb*; **salar**, *trout*, which are masculine.

124. Nouns in **ur** and **us** are neuter, except

1. The Masculines: **furfur**, *bran*; **turtur**, *turtle dove*; **vultur**, *vulture*; **lepus**, *hare*.

2. The Feminine: **pecus** (*pecudis*), *herd of cattle*.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

125. Adjectives of the Third Declension may be divided into three classes:

I. Those which have in the Nominative singular three different forms — one for each gender: **I-Stems**.

II. Those which have two forms — the masculine and feminine being the same: **Consonant and I-Stems**.

III. Those which have but one form — the same for all genders: **Consonant and I-Stems**.

126. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in **i**, and are declined as follows:

Ācer, ācris, ācre, sharp.

SINGULAR			
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N. V.	ācer	ācris	ācre
Gen.	ācris	ācris	ācris
Dat.	ācri	ācri	ācri
Acc.	ācrem	ācrem	ācre
Abl.	ācri	ācri	ācri
PLURAL			
N. V.	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Gen.	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
Dat.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
Acc.	ācrēs, ācrīs	ācrēs, ācrīs	ācria
Abl.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

1. Here observe that the stem of **ācer, ācris, ācre** is **ācri**, and that the Ablative singular ends in **i**.

2. Adjectives in **er** of this class are regularly declined like **ācer**, but **celer, celeris, celere, swift**, retains the **e** before **r**, and when used as a substantive has **um** in the Genitive plural. **Volucer, winged**, sometimes has **um**.

3. In the poets and in early Latin, the form in **er**, as **ācer**, is sometimes feminine, and the form in **is**, as **ācris**, is sometimes masculine.

127. Adjectives of Two Endings are either from **i-stems** or from **a-stems**, and are declined as follows:

Tristis, triste,¹ sad.**Tristior,¹ tristius, sadder.**

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	tristis	triste	tristior	tristius
Gen.	tristis	tristis	tristiōris	tristiōris
Dat.	tristī	tristī	tristiōrī	tristiōrī
Acc.	tristem	triste	tristiōrem	tristius
Abl.	tristī	tristī	tristiōre (I) ²	tristiōre (I) ²

PLURAL

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	tristēs	tristia	tristiōrēs	tristiōra
Gen.	tristium	tristium	tristiōrum	tristiōrum
Dat.	tristibus	tristibus	tristiōribus	tristiōribus
Acc.	tristēs, tristis	tristia	tristiōrēs (is) ²	tristiōra
Abl.	tristibus	tristibus	tristiōribus	tristiōribus

1. Observe that **tristis** and **triste** have **i** in the Ablative singular; that otherwise **tristis** is declined like **ignis**, and **triste** like **cubile** (102, 103).

2. **Tristior** is the comparative (149) of **tristis**.

3. Like **tristior**, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. sing. in **e**, sometimes in **i**, the Nom. plur. neuter in **a**, and the Gen. plur. in **um**. But the comparative **plūs**, *more*, is declined as follows:

SINGULAR

PLURAL

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	—	plūs	plūrēs	plūra
Gen.	—	plūris	plūrium	plūrium
D. Abl.	—	—	plūribus	plūribus
Acc.	—	plūs	plūrēs	plūra

4. **Complūrēs** is declined like the plural of **plūrēs**, though it admits **complūria** for **complūra** in the neuter

128. Adjectives of One Ending are declined partly from consonant stems and partly from **i**-stems. Most of them end in **s** or **x**: a few in **i** or **r**

Audāx, audacious.**Fēlix, happy.**

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	audāx	andāx	fēlix	fēlix
Gen.	andācis	andācis	fēlicis	fēlicis

¹ Final **i** becomes **e** in **triste**, and the stem ending **s** becomes **r** between vowels, and finally this **r** usurps the place of **s** in the Nominative masculine. In the neuter Nominative and Accusative, **tristios** is weakened to **tristius**.

² The forms with the inclosed endings, **tristiōrī** and **tristiōris**, are very rare.

Dat.	audāci	audāci	felici	felici
Acc.	audācem	audāx	felicem	felix
Abl.	audāci (e)	audāci (e)	felici (e)	felici (e)

PLURAL

N. V.	audācēs	audācia	felicēs	felicia
Gen.	audācium	audācium	felicium	felicium
Dat.	audācibus	audācibus	felicibus	felicibus
Acc.	audācēs (is)	audācia	felicēs (is)	felicia
Abl.	audācibus	audācibus	felicibus	felicibus

Amāns, loving.

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	amāns	amāns
Gen.	amantis	amantis
Dat.	amantī	amantī
Acc.	amantem	amāns
Abl.	amante (I)	amante (I)

PLURAL

N. V.	amantēs	amantia
Gen.	amantium	amantium
Dat.	amantibus	amantibus
Acc.	amantēs (is)	amantia
Abl.	amantibus	amantibus

Prūdēns, prudent.

	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen.	prudentis	prudentis
Dat.	prudentī	prudentī
Acc.	prudentem	prūdēns
Abl.	prudentī (e)	prudentī (e)

N. V.	prudentēs	prudentia
Gen.	prudentium	prudentium
Dat.	prudentibus	prudentibus
Acc.	prudentēs (is)	prudentia
Abl.	prudentibus	prudentibus

Vetus, old.

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	vetus¹	vetus
Gen.	veteris	veteris
Dat.	veterī	veterī
Acc.	veterem	vetus
Abl.	vetere (I)	vetere (I)

PLURAL

N. V.	veterēs	vetera
Gen.	veterum	veterum
Dat.	veteribus	veteribus
Acc.	veterēs (is)	vetera
Abl.	veteribus	veteribus

Memor, mindful.

	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	memor	memor
Gen.	memoris	memoris
Dat.	memorī	memorī
Acc.	memorem	memor
Abl.	memorī	memorī

N. V.	memorēs	—
Gen.	memorum	—
Dat.	memoribus	—
Acc.	memorēs (is)	—
Abl.	memoribus	—

¹ The stem of *vetus, veteris*, is *vetos, vetes*, but the endings *os* and *es* are only ablaut forms of the same suffix.

MORPHOLOGY

1. The participle *amāns* differs in declension from the adjective *prūpiens* only in the Ablative singular, where the participle usually has the ending *e* and the adjective *i*. Participles used as adjectives generally have *i*.

2. A few adjectives have only *e* in general use in the Ablative singular, especially those in *es*, Gen. in *itis* or *idis*: *ales*, *dēses*, *dīves*, *sōspes*, *superstes*, and *caelebs*, *compos*, *impos*, *pauper*, *princeps*, *pūbes*.

129. Neuter Plural. — Many adjectives from the nature of their signification are rare in the neuter. Some of these, like *memor*, lack the neuter plural; all others have the ending *ia*, in the Nominative and Accusative, except *uber*, *ūbera*, *fertile*, and *vetus*, *vetera*.

130. Genitive Plural. — Most adjectives of the Third Declension have *ium* in the Genitive plural, but the following have *um*:

1. Adjectives compounded with substantives which have *um*: *inops* (*opum*), *inopum*, *helpless*; *quadrupēs*, *quadrupedum*, *four-footed*.

2. Those which have only *e* in the Ablative singular (128, 2): *pauper*, *paupere*, *pauperum*, *poor*; *sōspes*, *sōspite*, *sōspitum*, *safe*; *compos*, *compote*, *compotum*, *master of*.

3. Those which have the Genitive in *eris*, *oris*, *uris*: *vetus*, *veterum*, *old*; *memor*, *memorum*, *mindful*; *cicur*, *cicurum*, *tame*, and a few others.

4. The poets and late writers often use *um* in words which have *ium* in classical prose.

FOURTH DECLENSION

U-NOUNS

131. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in *us* and *ū*. Those in *us* are masculine, those in *ū* are neuter. They are declined as follows:

Fructus, *fruit*. *Cornū*, *horn*.

SINGULAR			Case Endings	
N. V.	<i>fructus</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>us</i>	<i>ū</i>
Gen.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornūs</i>	<i>ūs</i>	<i>ūs</i>
Dat.	<i>fructui</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>ui</i>	<i>ū</i>
Acc.	<i>fructum</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>um</i>	<i>ū</i>
Abl.	<i>fructū</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ū</i>
PLURAL				
N. V.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornua</i>	<i>ūs</i>	<i>ua</i>
Gen.	<i>fructuum</i>	<i>cornuum</i>	<i>uum</i>	<i>uum</i>
Dat.	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornibus</i>	<i>ibus (ubus)</i>	<i>ibus (ubus)</i>
Acc.	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornua</i>	<i>ūs</i>	<i>ua</i>
Abl.	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornibus</i>	<i>ibus (ubus)</i>	<i>ibus (ubus)</i>

1. Here the stems are **fructu** and **cornu**, and the case endings contain the characteristic **u**, weakened to **i** in **ibus**, but retained in **ubus**.

2. A few nouns retain **ubus** in the Dative and Ablative plural: regularly **tribus**, *tribe*; generally **acus**, *needle*; **arcus**, *bow*; **artus**, *joint*; **lacus**, *lake*; **partus**, *birth*; and sometimes **portus**, *harbor*; **specus**, *cave*; **verū**, *spit*; and a few other words.

3. In early Latin the endings **uis**, **uos**, and **i** occur in the Genitive singular: **fructuis**, *of fruit*; **senātuos** and **senātī**, *of the senate*. **Senātī** is found even in Cicero. The Genitive in **i** is common in Plautus and Terence, as **adventī**, **fructī**, **gemitī**, **quaestī**, etc.

4. A Dative in **ū**, the regular form in nouns in **ū**, also occurs in nouns in **us**, but chiefly in poetry: **fructū** = **fructui**.

5. The following are the original case endings, with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

SINGULAR				
Masculine			Neuter	
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	u-s	us	u	ū ¹
Gen.	eu-s	ūs	e s	ūs
Dat.	u-ai	uī ²	eu	ū ²
Acc.	u m	um	u	ū ¹
Abl.	ū-d ³	ū	ū-d ³	ū
PLURAL				
N. V.	eu-es } ou-es }	ūs	u-ā	ua
Gen.	u-om	uum	u-om	uum
Dat.	u-bhos	ubus, ibus	u-bhos	ubus, ibus
Acc.	u-ns	ūs	u-ā	ua
Abl.	u-bhos	ubus, ibus	u-bhos	ubus, ibus

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

132. The following nouns in **us** are feminine: **acus**, *needle*; **colus**, *staff*; **domus**, *house*; **Idūs**, *Ides*; **manus**, *hand*; **porticus**, *portico*, **quinquātrūs**, *feast of Minerva*; **tribus**, *tribe*.

¹ The **ū** in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters is of uncertain origin, perhaps a plural or dual formation.

² The Dative in **ū**, used both as masculine and as neuter, is in origin a Locative formation.

³ The ending **ū-d**, from which **ū** was derived, was not inherited, but was formed after the analogy of the Ablative ending **ō-d** from **o** stems, as in **Gnaiv-ō-d**.

MORPHOLOGY

1. The only neuter nouns in common use are **cornū**, **genū**, and **verū**, but neuter forms are sometimes found in certain cases of other words, as **artua** from **artus**.

133. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of the Fourth Declension and partly of the Second.

1. **Domus**, f., *house*, has a Locative, **domī**, at *home*, and is otherwise declined as follows :

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
N. V.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs	domuum, domōrum
Dat.	domui, domō	domibus
Acc.	domū	domūs, domōs
Abl.	domū, domō	domibus

2. Certain names of trees in **us**, as **cupressus**, **figus**, **laurus**, **pīnus**, though generally of the Second Declension, sometimes take those cases of the Fourth which end in **ūs**, **us**, and **ū** : N. V. **laurus** ; Gen. **laurī**, **laurūs** ; Dat. **laurō** ; Acc. **laurum** ; Abl. **laurō**, **laurū**, etc. So also **colus**, *distaff*. **Quercus**, *oak*, regularly of the Fourth Declension, has **quercōrum** in the Gen. plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION

E-NOUNS

134. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in **ēs** and are feminine. They are declined as follows :

Diēs, *day*. **Rēs**, *thing*.

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	Case Endings
N. V.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Gen.	diēī	rēī	ēī
Dat.	diēī	rēī	ēī
Acc.	diem	rem	em
Abl.	diē	rē	ē
N. V.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Gen.	diērum	rērum	ērum
Dat.	diēbus	rēbus	ēbus
Acc.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Abl.	diēbus	rēbus	ēbus

1. The case endings here given contain the characteristic **ē**, which appears in all the cases. It is shortened generally in the ending **ēī**, when preceded by a consonant, and regularly in the ending **em**.

2. The Genitive and Dative singular sometimes end in **ē**, and sometimes, though rarely, in **ī** for **ēī**, chiefly in poetry: **aciē**,¹ **diē**, **fidē**, **dīī**, **faciī**.¹

NOTE. — These forms in **ē** are Locatives in origin, and they have retained their original Locative meaning in a few phrases found in early Latin, as **diē septimī**, *on the seventh day*; **diē crāstinī**, *on the morrow*. **Cottidiē**, **hodiē**, **prīdiē**, and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

3. In early Latin the Genitive sometimes ends in **ēs**: **diēs**, *of a day*.

4. **Diēs** and **rēs** are the only nouns in this declension complete in all their parts. In other nouns the plural forms, especially the Genitive, Dative, and Ablative, are rare in the best writers.

5. The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	ē-s	ēs	ē-som	ēs
Gen.	ē-s, ē-ī	ēs , ēī	ē-som	ērum
Dat.	e-al	ēī	ē-bhos	ēbus
Acc.	ē-m	em	ē-ns	ēs
Abl.	ē-d ²	ē	ē-bhos	ēbus

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

135. **Diēs**, *day*, and **merīdiēs**, *mid-day*, are masculine, though **diēs** is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially when it means a definite or fixed time.

136. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER

1. Gender independent of endings; common to all declensions.³

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Names of Males, of Rivers, Winds, and Months	Names of Females, of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees	Indeclinable Nouns, Infinitives, and Clauses used as Nouns

¹ **Acīē**, Gen. and Dat. of **aciēs**, *a sharp edge*; **facīī**, of **faciēs**, *appearance*.

² The primitive ending was probably **ēd**, though only **ē** is found.

³ For exceptions, see 68. 1; 69, 1.

2. Gender determined by Nominative ending.¹

FIRST DECLENSION		
Masculine ās, ōs	Feminine a, ē	Neuter —
SECOND DECLENSION		
er, ir, us, os, ōs	—	um, on
THIRD DECLENSION		
ō, or, ōs, er, es, except dō, gō, and iō	dō, gō, iō; ās, ēs, is, ūs, ys, x, s preceded by a consonant	a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ar, ur, us
FOURTH DECLENSION		
	—	
FIFTH DECLENSION		
	ēs	—

INDECLINABLE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

137. A very few nouns and adjectives are indeclinable, having but one form for all cases. The following are the most important:

1. The letters of the alphabet, **a, b, c, alpha, bēta**, etc.
2. **Fās**, right; **nefās**, wrong; **nihil**, nothing; **īnstar**, likeness; **māne**, morning.²
3. A very few adjectives: **frūgī**, frugal, good; **nēquam**, worthless; **mille**, thousand; **potīs**, able.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

138. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the singular. To these belong

1. The names of Persons and many names of Places: **Cicerō**, Caesar, **Rōma**, Rome; **Graecia**, Greece; but Proper names admit the plural to designate Families or Classes: **Scipiōnēs**, the Scipios; **Caesarēs**, the Caesars.

¹ For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

² But these nouns are not only indeclinable, but also defective, as they are regularly used only in the Nominative and Accusative singular, though **māne** also occurs as a Locative Ablative.

2. Most Abstract nouns: *fīdēs*, *faith*; *iūstitia*, *justice*; but many abstract nouns admit the plural to designate instances, or kinds of the quality: *avāritiae*, *instances of avarice*; *odīa*, *hatreds*. In the poets the plural is often used in the sense of the singular.

3. The names of Materials: *aurum*, *gold*; *ferrum*, *iron*; but the plural may be used to designate pieces of the material, or articles made of it; *aera*, *vessels of copper*.

4. A few special nouns: *merīdiē*, *mid-day*; *specimen*, *example*; *suppellex*, *furniture*; *vēr*, *spring*; *vespera*, *evening*, etc.

139. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used only in the plural. To these belong

1. Certain Personal Appellatives applicable to Classes: *māiōrēs*, *forefathers*; *posterī*, *descendants*; *geminī*, *twins*; *liberī*, *children*. An individual member of such a class may be denoted by *ūnus ex* with the plural: *ūnus ex liberīs*, *one of the children*, or *a child*.

2. Many names of Cities: *Athēnae*, *Athens*; *Thēbae*, *Thebes*; *Delphī*, *Delphi*.

3. Many names of Festivals: *Bacchānālīa*, *the Bacchanalian Festival*; *Olympia*, *the Olympian Games*. Here the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

4. Certain special nouns: *arma*, *arms*; *dīvitiae*, *riches*; *exsequiae*, *rites*; *exuviae*, *spoils*; *īdūs*, *Ides*; *indūtiae*, *truce*; *insīdiae*, *ambuscade*; *mānēs*, *shades of the dead*; *minae*, *threats*; *moenia*, *walls*; *mūnia*, *duties*; *nūptiae*, *nuptials*; *reliquiae*, *remains*.

140. Plural with Change of Meaning. — Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

<i>aedēs</i> , <i>temple</i>	<i>aedēs</i> , (1) <i>temples</i> , (2) <i>a house</i> ¹
<i>auxilium</i> , <i>help</i>	<i>auxilia</i> , <i>auxiliaries</i>
<i>carcer</i> , <i>prison</i> , <i>barrier</i>	<i>carcerēs</i> , <i>barriers of a race course</i>
<i>castrum</i> , <i>castle</i> , <i>hut</i>	<i>castra</i> , <i>camp</i>
<i>comitium</i> , <i>place of assembly</i>	<i>comitia</i> , <i>the assembly held in the comitium</i>
<i>cōpia</i> , <i>plenty</i> , <i>force</i>	<i>cōpiæ</i> , (1) <i>stores</i> , (2) <i>troops</i>
<i>facultās</i> , <i>ability</i>	<i>facultātēs</i> , <i>wealth</i> , <i>means</i>
<i>finis</i> , <i>end</i>	<i>finēs</i> , <i>borders</i> , <i>territory</i>
<i>fortūna</i> , <i>fortune</i>	<i>fortūnae</i> , <i>possessions</i> , <i>wealth</i>
<i>grātia</i> , <i>gratitude</i> , <i>favor</i>	<i>grātiæ</i> , <i>thanks</i>
<i>hortus</i> , <i>garden</i>	<i>horti</i> , (1) <i>gardens</i> , (2) <i>park</i>

¹ *Aedēs* and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

impedimentum, *hindrance*
littera, *letter of alphabet*

lūdus, *play, sport*

mōs, *custom*

nātālīs (diēs), *birthday*

opera, *work, service*

pars, *part*

rōstrum, *beak of ship*

sāl, *salt*

impedimenta, (1) *hindrances*, (2) *baggage*
litterae, (1) *letters of the alphabet*, (2) *epistle, writing, letters, literature*

lūdī, (1) *plays*, (2) *public spectacle*

mōrēs, *manners, character*

nātālēs, *pedigree, parentage*

operae, *workmen*

partēs, (1) *parts*, (2) *a party*

rōstra, (1) *beaks*, (2) *the rostra or tribune*

salēs, *witty sayings*

141. Many nouns, entire in the singular, lack certain forms of the plural. Thus:

1. Most nouns of the Fifth Declension, a few of the Fourth, and several monosyllabic neuters of the Third, are seldom, if ever, used in the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative plural: **aciēs**, *sharpness*; **effigiēs**, *likeness*; **speciēs**, *appearance*, etc.; **metus**, *fear*; **situs**, *situation*, etc.; **fār**, *corn*; **fel**, *gall*; **mel**, *honey*, etc.

2. Many nouns, especially monosyllables, otherwise entire, lack the Genitive plural: **nex**, *death*; **pāx**, *peace*; **pīx**, *pitch*; **cor**, *heart*; **cōs**, *whetstone*; **sāl**, *salt*; **sōl**, *sun*; **lūx**, *light*.

142. Some nouns, entire in the plural, lack certain forms of the singular. The following are the most important:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
	opis	—	opem	ope	<i>help</i>
	vicis ¹	—	vicem	vice	<i>change</i>
	—	precī	precem	prece	<i>prayer</i>
	dapis ¹	dapī	dapem	dape	<i>food</i>
	frūgis	frūgī	frūgem	frūge	<i>fruit</i>

143. A few nouns are used only in certain cases of the singular:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
fors	—	—	—	forte	<i>chance</i>
luēs	—	—	luem	lue	<i>pestilence</i>

1. A few verbal nouns in ū, and a few others, have only the Ablative singular in general use: **iussū**, *by order*; **mandātū**, *by command*; **rogātū**, *by request*; **sponte**, *by choice*, etc.

144. Defective Adjectives.—A few adjectives, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the plural, while others lack the Nomi-

¹ Defective also in the Genitive plural.

native singular, or at least the masculine form of the Nominative singular: **complūrēs**, *several*; **paucī**, *few*; **plērique**, *most*: (**cēterus**), **cētera**, **cēterum**, *the other, the rest*: (**lūdicer**), **lūdīca**, **lūdīcrum**, *sportive*; (**sōns**), **sontis**, *guilty*; (**sēminex**), **sēminecia**, *half dead*. The inclosed forms are not in good use.

HETEROCLITES

145. A few nouns, called Heteroclites (*heteroclita*)¹ are partly of one declension and partly of another.

1. Of the Second and Fourth Declensions are a few nouns in **us**: **domus**, *house*; **laurus**, *laurel tree*, etc.; see 133, 1 and 2.

2. Of the Second and Third Declensions are **iūgerum**, *an acre*, generally of the Second Declension in the singular, and of the Third in the plural: **iūgerum**, **iūgerī**; plural, **iūgera**, **iūgerum**: **vās**, *a vessel*, of the Third Declension in the singular, and of the Second in the plural: **vās**, **vāsīs**; plural, **vāsa**, **vāsōrum**.

NOTE. — Plural names of Festivals in **ālia**, as **Bacchānālia**, **Sātūr-nālia**, regularly of the Third Declension, sometimes have the Genitive plural in **ōrum**. **Ancile**, *a shield*, and a few other words, have the same peculiarity.

3. Of the Third and Fifth Declensions are **requiēs**, *rest*, not used in the plural or in the Dative singular, but having in the other oblique cases the forms both of the Third and of the Fifth Declension; and **famēs**, *hunger*, regularly of the Third Declension, but with **famē** in the Ablative.

4. Many nouns of four syllables have one form in **ia** of the First Declension, and one in **iēs** of the Fifth Declension: **lūxuria**, **lūxuriēs**, *luxury*, **māteria**, **māteriēs**, *material*.

5. Many Verbal nouns have one form in **us** of the Fourth Declension, and one in **ump** of the Second Declension: **cōnātus**, **cōnātum**, *attempt*; **ēventus**, **ēventum**, *event*.

6. Many nouns have only one approved form in the best prose, but admit another in poetry and in post-Augustan writers: **iuventūs** (**ūtis**), *youth*; poetic, **iuventa** (**ae**): **senectūs** (**ūtis**), *old age*; poetic, **senecta** (**ae**): **paupertās** (**ātis**), *poverty*; poetic, **pauperiēs** (**ēi**).

146. Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in **us**, a, **um**, of the First and Second Declensions, and one in **is** and **e**, of the Third: **hilarus** and **hilaris**, *joyful*; **exanimus** and **exanimis**, *lifeless*.

¹ From *ērepos*, *another*, and *κλῆσις*, *inflection*, i.e. of different declensions.

HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS

147. Heterogeneous (heterogenea¹) Nouns are partly of one gender and partly of another. Thus:

1. Some Masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: **iocus**, m., *jest*; plural, **iocī**, m., **ioca**, n.: **locus**, m., *place*; plural, **locī**, m., *topics*, **loca**, n., *places*.

2. Some Feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: **carbasus**, f., *linen*; plural, **carbasī**, f., **carbasa**, n.: **margarīta**, f., *pearl*; plural, **margarītae**, f., **margarīta**, n.: **ostrea**, f., *oyster*; plural, **ostreae**, f., **ostrea**, n.

3. Some Neuters become masculine in the plural: **caelum**, n., *heaven*; plural, **caelī**, m.

4. Some Neuters generally become masculine, but sometimes remain neuter: **frēnum**, n., *bridle*; plural, **frēnī**, m.; **frēna**, n.: **rāstrum**, n., *rake*; plural, **rāstrī**, m.; **rāstra**, n.

5. Some Neuters become feminine in the plural: **epulum**, n., *feast*; plural, **epulae**, f.

NOTE.—Some heterogeneous nouns are also heteroclites, as **epulum**, **epulae**, just given.

148. Some nouns of the Second Declension have one form in **us**, masculine, and one in **um**, neuter: **clipeus**, **clipeum**, *shield*; **commentārius**, **commentārium**, *commentary*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

149. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative: **altus**, **altior**, **altissimus**, *high, higher, highest*. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.

150. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison.

I. Terminational Comparison — by endings.

II. Adverbial Comparison — by the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **māximē**, *most*.

¹ From *ἕτερος*, *another*, and *γένος*, *gender*, i.e. of different genders.

I. Terminational Comparison

151. Adjectives and participles used as adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive, stripped of its final vowel, the following

ENDINGS OF COMPARISON

COMPARATIVE			SUPERLATIVE		
M. and F. ior	Neut. ius		Masc. issimus	Fem. issima	Neut. issimum ¹
altus, altior,	altius,		altissimus,	altissima,	altissimum
high, higher, or too high			highest, or very high		
dūrus, dūrior,	dūrius,		dūriissimus,	dūriissima,	dūriissimum
hard, harder			hardest		
levis, levior,	levius,		levissimus,	levissima,	levissimum
light, lighter			lightest		
amāns, amantior,	amantius,		amantissimus,	amantissima,	amantissimum
loving, more loving			most loving		

152. Irregular Superlatives. — Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:

1. Adjectives in **er** add **rimus** to this ending:²

acer,	ācrior,	ācerrimus,	sharp,	sharper,	sharpest
asper,	asporior,	asperrimus,	rough,	rougher,	roughest
celer,	celerior,	celerrimus,	swift,	swifter,	swiftest

2. But note the following:

dexter,	right, on the right,	dexterior,	dextimus
mātūrus, mature,		mātūrior,	mātūriissimus, mātūrrimus

3. Five adjectives in **ilis** add **limus** to the stem, stripped of its final vowel:³

¹ The Latin has three different superlative suffixes: (1) **mus**, seen in **summus**, *highest*; (2) **timus**, seen in **ci-timus**, *nearest*; **op-timus**, *best*; and (3) **is-simus**, the usual suffix, compounded of **is**, the weak form of the comparative suffix, **ios**, **ior**, and **simus**, of uncertain origin, but probably a new formation after the analogy of certain words in **simus**, as **pes-simus**, *worst*; **plū-rimus** for ***plū-simus**, *most*; **māximus** for ***mag-simus**, *greatest*; **vicē-simus**, *twentieth*; **tricē-simus**, *thirtieth*.

² The suffix **rimus** is from **is**, the comparative suffix, and **mus**, **imus**, the superlative suffix: ***ācr-is-imus**, which becomes ***ācer-s-imus**, **ācer-rimus**; **r** is vocalized, **er**; **i** is dropped and **s** is assimilated to the preceding **r**; see 54, 2.

³ The suffix **limus**, like **rimus**, is from **is-imus**: ***facil-is-imus**, ***facil-s-imus**, **facil-limus**, **s** assimilated to a preceding **l**; see 54, 2.

<i>facilis</i> ,	<i>facilior</i> ,	<i>facillimus</i> ,	<i>easy</i> ,	<i>easier</i> ,	<i>easiest</i>
<i>difficilis</i> ,	<i>difficilior</i> ,	<i>difficillimus</i> ,	<i>difficult</i> ,	<i>more difficult</i> ,	<i>most, etc.</i>
<i>similis</i> ,	<i>similior</i> ,	<i>simillimus</i> ,	<i>like</i> ,	<i>more like</i> ,	<i>most like</i>
<i>dissimilis</i> ,	<i>dissimilior</i> ,	<i>dissimillimus</i> ,	<i>unlike</i> ,	<i>more unlike</i> ,	<i>most, etc.</i>
<i>gracilis</i> ,	<i>gracilior</i> ,	<i>gracillimus</i> ,	<i>slender</i> ,	<i>more slender</i> ,	<i>most, etc.</i>
<i>humilis</i> ,	<i>humilior</i> ,	<i>humillimus</i> ,	<i>low</i> ,	<i>lower</i> ,	<i>lowest</i>

153. Compounds of *dicus* and *volus* form their comparatives and superlatives from the corresponding participial stems, *dicent* and *volent*, and compounds of *ficus* sometimes follow their analogy:

maledicus,	maledicēns,	<i>slanderous,</i>	maledicentior,	maledicentissimus
benevolus,	benevolēns,	<i>benevolent,</i>	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus
honōrificus,		<i>honorable,</i>	honōrificentior,	honōrificentissimus

NOTE. — *Maledicēns* and *benevolēns* are found in early Latin.

154. Special irregularities of comparison sometimes arise from the use of different stems:

<i>bonus</i> ,	<i>melior</i> ,	<i>optimus</i> ,	<i>good</i> ,	<i>better</i> ,	<i>best</i>
<i>malus</i> ,	<i>pēior</i> ,	<i>pessimus</i> ,	<i>bad</i> ,	<i>worse</i> ,	<i>worst</i>
<i>māgnus</i> ,	<i>māior</i> ,	<i>māximus</i> ,	<i>great</i> ,	<i>greater</i> ,	<i>greatest</i>
<i>parvus</i> ,	<i>minor</i> ,	<i>minimus</i> ,	<i>small</i> ,	<i>smaller</i> ,	<i>smallest</i>

1. Here belongs *multus*, which lacks the comparative in the masculine and feminine singular:

<i>multus</i> ,	—,	<i>plūrimus</i> ,	} <i>much, more, most</i>
<i>multa</i> ,	—,	<i>plūrima</i> ,	
<i>multum</i> ,	<i>plūs</i> ,	<i>plūrimum</i> ,	

2. Note also:

<i>frūgi</i> ,	<i>frūgālīor</i> ,	<i>frūgālīssimus</i> ,	<i>frugal</i> ,	<i>more frugal</i> ,	<i>most frugal</i>
<i>nēquam</i> ,	<i>nēquīor</i> ,	<i>nēquīssimus</i> ,	<i>worthless</i> ,	<i>more worthless</i> ,	<i>most worthless</i>

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON

155. In a few adjectives the Positive is either entirely wanting, or used only in special constructions:

1. Positive wanting:

<i>citerior</i> ,	<i>citimus</i> ,	<i>on this side, near</i> ,	<i>nearest</i>
<i>dēterior</i> ,	<i>dēterrimus</i> ,	<i>worse</i> ,	<i>worst</i>
<i>interior</i> ,	<i>intimus</i> ,	<i>inner</i> ,	<i>inmost</i>
<i>cēlor</i> ,	<i>cēlissimus</i> ,	<i>swifter</i> ,	<i>swiftest</i>
<i>prior</i> ,	<i>primus</i> ,	<i>former</i> ,	<i>first</i>
<i>proprior</i> ,	<i>proximus</i> ,	<i>nearer</i> ,	<i>nearest</i>
<i>ulterior</i> ,	<i>ultimus</i> ,	<i>farther</i> ,	<i>farthest</i>

2. Positive used only in special constructions:

(exterus), ¹	exterior,	extrēmus, and extimus,	outer,	outermost
(inferus), ²	inferior,	infimus, and imus,	lower,	lowest
(posterus), ³	posterior,	postremus, and postumus, ⁴	later,	last, last-born
(superus), ²	superior,	supremus, and summus,	higher,	highest

156. A few adjectives lack the Comparative:

diversus,	—,	diversissimus,	diverse,	most diverse
falsus,	—,	falsissimus,	false,	most false
inclutus,	—,	inclutissimus,	renowned,	most renowned
invitus,	—,	invitissimus,	unwilling,	most unwilling
meritus,	—,	meritissimus,	deserving,	most deserving
novus,	—, ⁵	novissimus,	new,	last
sacer,	—, ⁶	sacerrimus,	sacred,	most sacred
vetus,	—, ⁷	veterrimus,	old,	oldest

157. Many adjectives lack the Superlative:

1. Many verbals in *ilis* and *bilis*:

agilis,	agilior,	—,	agile,	more agile
docilis,	docilior,	—,	docile,	more docile
laudabilis,	laudabilior,	—,	laudable,	more laudable
optabilis,	optabilior,	—,	desirable,	more desirable

2. A few special adjectives:

alacer,	alacrior,	—,	active,	more active
diuturnus,	diuturnior,	—,	lasting,	more lasting
longinquus,	longinquior,	—,	distant,	more distant
prœclivis,	prœclivior,	—,	prone,	more prone
prœnus,	prœnior,	—,	inclined,	more inclined
propinquus,	propinquior,	—,	near,	nearer
salutāris,	salutārior,	—,	salutary,	more salutary

¹ *Natiōēs exterae*, foreign peoples, occurs in classical prose.² *Omnia sup̄ra. infera*, all things above and below; and *ad superōs*, to those above, and *ad inferōs*, to those below, occur in classical prose.³ *Posterus* occurs in a few expressions of time, *posterō diē*, on the following day; in *posterum diem*, for the next day; in *posterum*, for the future. Note also *posterī*, descendants.⁴ *Postumus* means late born, or last born.⁵ The comparative of *novus* is supplied by *recentior*, from *recēns*, and the superlative, in the sense of *newest*, by *recentissimus*.⁶ The comparative of *sacer* is supplied by *sānctior*, from *sānctus*, and that of *vetus* by *vetustior*, from *vetustus*.

158. Three adjectives supply the Superlative as follows:

adulēscēns,	adulēscēntior,	minimus nātū,	<i>young, younger, youngest</i>
iuvenis,	iūnior,	minimus nātū,	<i>young, younger, youngest</i>
senex,	senior,	māximus nātū,	<i>old, older, oldest</i>

II. Adverbial Comparison — by the Adverbs **magis** and **māximē**

159. Most adjectives in **eus, ius,** and **uus,** except those in **quus,** are compared by prefixing to the positive the adverbs **magis,** **more,** and **māximē,** *most*:

idōneus,	magis idōneus,	māximē idōneus,¹
<i>suitable</i>	<i>more suitable</i>	<i>most suitable</i>
necessārius,	magis necessārius,	māximē necessārius,
<i>necessary</i>	<i>more necessary</i>	<i>most necessary</i>
arduus,	magis arduus,	māximē arduus,
<i>arduous</i>	<i>more arduous</i>	<i>most arduous</i>

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: **admodum, valdē, oppidō,** *very*; **imprīmīs,** or **in primīs, apprimē,** *in the highest degree*. **Per** and **prae** in composition with adjectives have the force of *very*; **perdifficilis,** *very difficult*; **praeclārus,** *very illustrious*.

2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used: with the comparative **etiam,** *even*, **multō, longē,** *much, far*; **etiam diligentior,** *even more diligent*; **multō diligentior,** *much more diligent*: with the superlative **multō, longē,** *much, by far*, **quam,** *as possible*: **multō** or **longē diligentissimus,** *by far the most diligent*; **quam diligentissimus,** *as diligent as possible*.

ADJECTIVES WITHOUT COMPARISON

160. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, are rarely, if ever, compared, especially such as denote Material, Color, Possession, or the relations of Time and Place:

aureus, <i>golden</i>	ferreus, <i>of iron</i>	albus, <i>white</i>
flāvus, <i>yellow</i>	māternus, <i>of a mother</i>	paternus, <i>of a father</i>
Rōmānus, <i>Roman</i>	aestivus, <i>of summer</i>	sempiternus, <i>eternal</i>

¹ Observe that this adverbial comparison by means of **magis** and **māximē** corresponds exactly to the English adverbial comparison by means of *more* and *most*.

NUMERALS

161. Numerals comprise Numeral Adjectives and Numeral Adverbs.

162. Numeral Adjectives comprise three principal classes:

1. Cardinal Numbers: **ūnus**, *one*; **duo**, *two*; **trēs**, *three*.
2. Ordinal Numbers: **primus**, *first*; **secundus**, *second*; **tertius**, *third*.
3. Distributives: **singuli**, *one by one*; **binī**, *two by two, two each, two apiece*.

NOTE. — To these may be added

1. Multiplicatives, adjectives in **plex**, (Gen. **plicis**, denoting so many fold: **simplex**, *single*; **duplex**, *double*; **triplex**, *threefold*; **quadruplex**, *fourfold*.

2. Proportionals, declined like **bonus**, and denoting so many times as great: **duplus**, *twice as great*; **tripplus**, *three times as great*.

163. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum	primus, <i>first</i>	singuli, ¹ <i>one by one</i>
2. duo, duae, duo	secundus, ² <i>second</i>	binī, <i>two by two</i>
3. trēs, tria	tertius, <i>third</i>	ternī or trīnī
4. quattuor	quārtus, <i>fourth</i>	quaternī
5. quinque	quintus, <i>fifth</i>	quinī
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septenī
8. octō	✓ octāvus	octōnī
9. novem	nōnus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	dēnī
11. undecim	undecimus	undēnī
12. duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13. tredecim ³	tertius decimus ⁴	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quindecim	quintus decimus	quinī dēnī
16. sēdecim ³	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī

¹ Distributives, **singuli**, **binī**, etc., are adjectives, used only in the plural. They are declined like the plural of **bonus**: **singuli**, **singulae**, **singula**.

² **Alter** is often used for **secundus**.

³ Sometimes with the parts separated: **decem et trēs**, etc.

⁴ **Decimus**, with or without **et**, may precede: **decimus et tertius** or **decimus tertius**.

MORPHOLOGY

18.	duodēviginti ¹	duodēvicēsīmus ²	duodēvicēnī ³
19.	undēviginti ¹	undēvicēsīmus ²	undēvicēnī ³
20.	vīgintī	vicēsīmus	vicēnī
21.	{ vīgintī ūnus ūnus et vīgintī ⁴	{ vicēsīmus primus ūnus et vicēsīmus ⁴	{ vicēnī singulī singulī et vicēnī ⁵
22.	{ vīgintī duo duo et vīgintī	{ vicēsīmus secundus alter et vicēsīmus	{ vicēnī binī binī et vicēnī
28.	duodētrīgintā	duodētricēsīmus	duodētricēnī
29.	undētrīgintā	undētricēsīmus	undētricēnī
30.	trīgintā	tricēsīmus	tricēnī
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsīmus	quadrāgēnī
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsīmus	quīnq. āgēnī
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsīmus	sexāgēnī
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsīmus	septuāgēnī
80.	octōgintā	octōgēsīmus	octōgēnī
90.	nonāgintā	nōnāgēsīmus	nōnāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsīmus	centēnī
101.	{ centum ūnus centum et ūnus ⁶	{ centēsīmus primus centēsīmus et primus	{ centēnī singulī centēnī et singulī
200.	ducentī, ae, a	ducentēsīmus	ducentī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsīmus	trecentī
400.	quadrīngentī	quadrīngentēsīmus	quadrīngēnī
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsīmus	quīngēnī
600.	sescentī	sescentēsīmus	sescentī
700.	septīngentī	septīngentēsīmus	septīngēnī
800.	octīngentī	octīngentēsīmus	octīngēnī
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēsīmus	nōngēnī
1,000.	mille	millēsīmus	singula millia ⁷
2,000.	duo millia ⁷	bis millēsīmus	binā millia
100,000.	centum millia	centīēs millēsīmus	centēna millia
1,000,000.	decīēs centēna millia ⁸	decīēs centīēs millēsīmus	decīēs centēna millia

¹ Literally *two from twenty, one from twenty*, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: **decem et octō**; **decem et novem**, or **decem novem**, so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from **trīgintā**, etc., or by addition to **vīgintī**, etc.

² Sometimes expressed by addition: **octāvus decimus**; **nōnus decimus**.

³ Sometimes **octōnī dēnī**; **novēnī dēnī**.

⁴ If tens precede the units, **et** is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

⁵ Sometimes **vicēnī et singulī** or **singulī vicēnī**.

⁶ In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds etc., as in English; but the connective **et** is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: **mille centum vīgintī** or **mille et centum vīgintī**, 1120.

⁷ Often written **millia**. For **duo millia**, **binā millia** or **bis mille** is sometimes used.

⁸ Literally, *ten times a hundred thousand*; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with **centēna millia**: **centīēs centēna millia**, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations **centēna millia** is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes **centum millia** is used.

1. Poets use numeral adverbs (171) very freely in compounding numbers: **bis sex**, for **duodecim**; **bis septem**, for **quattuordecim**.

2. **Œscenti** and **mille**, and in poetry **centum**, are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as *thousand* is used in English.

164. Distributives are used

1. To show the Number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece*: **ternos dēnārios accēpērunt**, *they received each three denarii*, or *three apiece*. Hence

2. To express Multiplication: **decies centēna milia**, *ten times a hundred thousand, a million*.

3. Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: **bīna castra**, *two camps*. Here for **singuli** and **terni**, **ūni** and **trīni** are used: **ūnae litterae**, *one letter*; **trīnae litterae**, *three letters*.

4. Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: **bīni scypoi**, *a pair of galleys*; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: **bīna hastilia**, *two spears*.

165. In fractions the numerator is expressed by cardinals and the denominator by ordinals, with or without **par** as in English: **duae tertiae**, *two thirds* = $\frac{2}{3}$; **trēs quintae**, *three fifths* = $\frac{3}{5}$; **trēs septimae**, *three sevenths* = $\frac{3}{7}$.

1. When the numerator is omitted, it is always one. Then **pars** is generally expressed: **tertia pars**, *one third part* = $\frac{1}{3}$; **quarta pars**, *one fourth part* = $\frac{1}{4}$.

2. When the denominator is omitted, it is always larger than the numerator by one. Here **partēs** is expressed: **duae partēs**, *two thirds* = $\frac{2}{3}$; **trēs partēs**, *three fourths* = $\frac{3}{4}$.

Declension of Numeral Adjectives

166. **Ūnus**, **duo**, and **trēs** are declined as follows: ¹

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	ūnī	ūnae	ūna
Gen.	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnōrum	ūnārum	ūnōrum
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūnīs
Acc.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum	ūnōs	ūnās	ūna
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūhīs

¹ The Vocative of these numerals seems not to be in use, though the Roman grammarians make mention of **ūne**, **ūnī**, and **trēs** as vocatives.

Duo, two.

Trēs, three.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	duo	duae	duo ¹	trēs	tria
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum ²	trium	trium
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo	trēs, trīs	tria
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus

1. The plural of **ūnus** in the sense of *alone* may be used with any noun: **ūni Ubi**, *the Ubi alone*; but in the sense of *one*, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: **ūna castra**, *one camp*; **ūnae litterae**, *one letter*.

2. Like **duo** is declined **ambo**, *both*.

3. **Multi**, *many*, and **plūrimī**, *very many*, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of *many a*: **multa hostia**, *many a victim*.

167. The Cardinals from **quattuor** to **centum** are indeclinable, but hundreds are declined like the plural of **bonus**: **ducentī**, *ae, a*.

168. **Mille** as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of **cubile** (103): **mīlia**, **mīlium**, **mīlibus**.

1. With the substantive **mīlle**, **mīlia**, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: **mīlle hominum**, *a thousand men (of men)*; but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: **tria mīlia trecentī militēs**, *three thousand three hundred soldiers*.

169. Ordinals are declined like **bonus**, and distributives like the plural of **bonus**, but the latter often have **um** instead of **ōrum** in the Genitive: **binum** for **binōrum**.

170.

NUMERAL SYMBOLS

Arabic	Roman	Arabic	Roman	Arabic	Roman
1	I	6	VI	11	XI
2	II	7	VII	12	XII
3	III	8	VIII	13	XIII
4	IV	9	IX	14	XIV
5	V	10	X	15	XV

¹ In the ending **o** in **duo** and **ambo**, we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit *deva*, the Greek *ἑῶ*, the Latin **duo**, and the English *two*.

² Instead of **duōrum** and **duārum**, **duum** is sometimes used.

16	XVI	60	LX	600	DC
17	XVII	70	LXX	700	DCC
18	XVIII	80	LXXX	800	DCCC
19	XIX	90	XC	900	DCCCC
20	XX	100	C	1,000	CIO or M
21	XXI	200	CC	2,000	MM or II
30	XXX	300	CCC	10,000	CCIOO or X
40	XL	400	CCCC	100,000	CCCCIOO or C
50	L	500	IO or D	1,000,000	CCCCIOOO or [X]

1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I = 1; V = 5; X = 10; L = 50; C = 100. IO or D = 500; CIO or M = 1,000.

2. Each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500; IOO = 500 × 10 = 5,000; IOOO = 5,000 × 10 = 50,000.

3. C placed before I as many times as O stands after it doubles its value: IO = 500; CIO = 500 × 2 = 1,000; CCIOO = 5,000 × 2 = 10,000.

4. A line over a symbol increases the value a thousand fold, and a line over and on each side of it increases the value a hundred thousand fold: \overline{X} = 10,000; \overline{X} = 100,000 × 10 = 1,000,000.

Numeral Adverbs

171. To numerals belong also Numeral Adverbs.

1. <i>semel, once</i>	17. <i>septiēs deciēs</i>	101. <i>centiēs semel</i>
2. <i>bis, twice</i>	18. { <i>duodēviciēs</i>	102. <i>centiēs bis</i>
3. <i>ter, three times</i>	{ <i>octiēs deciēs</i>	200. <i>ducentiēs</i>
4. <i>quater</i>	19. { <i>undēviciēs</i>	300. <i>trecentiēs</i>
5. <i>quinqüiēs</i> ¹	{ <i>noniēs deciēs</i>	400. <i>quadringentiēs</i>
6. <i>sexiēs</i>	20. <i>viciēs</i>	500. <i>quingentiēs</i>
7. <i>septiēs</i>	21. <i>semel et viciēs</i>	600. <i>secentiēs</i>
8. <i>octiēs</i>	22. <i>bis et viciēs</i>	700. <i>septingentiēs</i>
9. <i>noviēs</i>	30. <i>triciēs</i>	800. <i>octingentiēs</i>
10. <i>deciēs</i>	40. <i>quadrāgiēs</i>	900. { <i>nōningentiēs</i>
11. <i>undēciēs</i>	50. <i>quinqüāgiēs</i>	{ <i>nōngentiēs</i>
12. <i>duodeciēs</i>	60. <i>sexāgiēs</i>	1,000. <i>miliēs</i>
13. <i>ter deciēs</i>	70. <i>septuāgiēs</i>	2,000. <i>bis miliēs</i>
14. <i>quater deciēs</i>	80. <i>octōgiēs</i>	10,000. <i>deciēs miliēs</i>
15. <i>quinqüiēs deciēs</i> ²	90. <i>nonāgiēs</i>	100,000. <i>centiēs miliēs</i>
16. <i>sexiēs deciēs</i> ²	100. <i>centiēs</i>	1,000,000. <i>deciēs centiēs miliēs</i>

1. In compounds of units and tens above twenty, the unit, with *et, ac, or atque*, regularly precedes: *bis et viciēs*; the tens, however, with or without the connective, may precede, as *viciēs et bis*, or *viciēs bis*.

¹ In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, *iēs* is the approved ending, though *iēns* often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives, *iēns* is the approved ending: *totiēns*, from *tot, so often*; *quotiēns*, from *quot, how often*.

² Or *quindēciēs* and *sēdēciēs*.

2. Numeral adverbs are often combined with Distributives: **bis bina**, *twice two*; **virginēs ter novēnae**, *three choirs of nine maidens each*.

3. For the poetic use of these adverbs with Cardinals, as **bis sex** for **duodecim**, see 163, 1.

4. Another class of adverbs, with the ending **um** or **ō**, is formed chiefly from Ordinals: **prīmum**, **prīmō**, *for the first time, in the first place*; **tertium**, *in the third place*; **postrēmum**, **postrēmō**, *in the last place*; but **prīmō** often means *at first, in the beginning*, in distinction from **prīmum**, *in the first place*, and **postrēmō** often means *at last, in the end*, in distinction from **postrēmum**, *in the last place, lastly*.

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172. In construction, Pronouns¹ are used either as Substantives: **ego**, *I*; **tū**, *thou*; **is**, *he*; or as Adjectives: **meus**, *my*; **tuus**, *your*; **suus**, *his, her, their*.

173. Pronouns are divided into seven classes:

1. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns: **tū**, *thou*; **sui**, *of himself*.
2. Possessive Pronouns: **meus**, *my*.
3. Demonstrative Pronouns: **hic**, *this*; **ille**, *that*.
4. Determinative Pronouns: **is**, *he, that*.
5. Relative Pronouns: **qui**, *who*.
6. Interrogative Pronouns: **quis**, *who?*
7. Indefinite Pronouns: **aliquis**, *some one*.

I. PERSONAL AND REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

174. Personal Pronouns,² so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, sometimes refer back to the subject of the sentence, and thus have a reflexive use: **puer sē amat**, *the boy loves himself*; **sē amant**, *they love themselves*; **tē amās**, *you love yourself*.

¹ But in their signification and use, pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out the relation of some object or action to the speaker, or to some other person or thing.

² Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

175. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns are thus declined.

Ego, I	Tū, thou	Sui, of himself, of herself
SINGULAR		
Nom. ego, I ¹	tū, thou ²	—
Gen. mei, of me	tui, of you	sui, of himself, etc.
Dat. mihi, for me	tibi, for you	sibi, for himself
Acc. mē, me	tē, thee, you	sē, himself
Abl. mē, with, by me, etc.	tē, with, by you, etc.	sē, with, by himself, etc. ³
PLURAL		
Nom. nōs, we	vōs, you	—
Gen. { nostrum, of us { nostri, of us	{ vestrum, ⁴ of you { vestri, of you	sui, of themselves
Dat. nōbis, for us	vōbis, for you	sibi, for themselves
Acc. nōs, us	vōs, you	sē, themselves
Abl. nōbis, with, by us	vōbis, with, by you	sē, with, by themselves

1. **MI** is often used for **mihi** in poetry, and sometimes in prose.

2. **Nostrum** and **vestrum** are generally used in a Partitive sense, as **quis nostrum**, *who of us?* but **nostri** and **vestri** are generally used in an Objective sense, as **memor vestri**, *mindful of you*.

3. Observe that the case endings of pronouns differ considerably from those of nouns.

4. **Emphatic Forms.**—**Tūte** and **tūtemet** for the Nom. **tū**. All the other cases of personal pronouns, except the Genitive plural, have emphatic forms in **met**: **egomet**, *I myself*; **tēmet**, *you yourself*.

5. The Reduplicated Forms **mēmē**, **tētē**, and **sēsē** occur both in the Accusative and in the Ablative.

6. Ancient and Rare Forms are **mīs** for **mei**; **tīs** for **tui**; **mēd**, **tēd**, **sēd** for **mē**, **tē**, **sē**, both Accusative and Ablative. Forms in **pte** as **mēpte** and **sēpte** are especially rare. In early Latin poetry, **nostrōrum** and

¹ **Ego** has no connection in form with **mei**, **mihi**, etc., but it is identical, both in form and meaning, with the corresponding Greek pronoun.

² **Tū** and **vōs**, as Vocatives, though recognized by certain Roman grammarians, are of doubtful authority. All other pronouns, except the possessives, **meus** and **noster**, lack the Vocative.

³ The Ablative generally takes a preposition, as **cum**, *with*, **ā**, *ab*, *by*.

⁴ **Vestrum** and **vestri** are also written **vostrum** and **vostrī**, though less correctly. **Mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostri**, and **vestri** are in form strictly Possessives in the Genitive singular, but by use they have become Personal. **Nostri** and **vestri** have also become plural. Thus, **memor vestri**, *mindful of you*, means literally *mindful of yours*, i.e. of your welfare, interest. **Nostrum** and **vestrum**, for **nostrōrum** and **vestrōrum**, are also Possessives; see 176.

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nostrārum sometimes occur for **nostrum**; and **vostrum**, **vostrōrum**, and **vostrārum**, for **vestrum**.

7. **Cum**, when used with the ablative of a personal pronoun, is appended to it: **mēcum**, *with me*; **tēcum**, *with you*.

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

176. From Personal Pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus, *mea*, **meum**, *my*; **noster**, *nostra*, **nostrum**, *our*;
tuus, *tua*, **tuum**, *thy, your*; **vester**, *vestra*, **vestrum**, *your*;
suus, *sua*, **suum**, *his, her, its*; **suus**, *sua*, **suum**, *their*.

1. Possessives are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions; but **meus** has in the Vocative singular masculine generally **mi**, sometimes **meus**, and in the Genitive plural sometimes **meum** instead of **meōrum**.

2. Emphatic forms in **pte** occur in the Ablative singular: **suōpte**, **suāpte**; forms in **met** are rare: **suamet**.

3. The possessive **cūius**, **cūia**, **cūium**,¹ early form **quōius**, **quōia**, **quōium**, *whose? whose*; generally interrogative, is rare, but it occurs in the Nominative singular and in a few other isolated forms.

4. A few forms of the possessives, **cūiās**, *of whose country?* and **nostrās**, *of our country*, declined like **aetās**, **aetātis**, occasionally occur.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

177. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they point out the objects to which they refer, are the following:

Hic, *this, near me*.

Iste, *that, near you*.

Ille, *that, near him, that yonder*.

178. The Demonstrative Pronouns **hic** and **iste** are declined as follows, and **ille** is declined precisely like **iste**:

	Hic, <i>this.</i>			Iste, <i>that.</i>		
	SINGULAR					
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	hic	haec	hōc	iste	ista	istud
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius	istius	istius	istius

¹ **Cūius**, *whose?* is formed from the Gen. **cūius** of **quis**, *who?* but **cūius**, *whose*, not interrogative, is formed from **cūius** of **qui**, *who*.

Dat.	huic	huic	huic	isti	isti	isti
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hoc	istum	istam	istud
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	istō	istā	istō ¹

PLURAL

Nom.	hi	hae	haec	isti	istae	ista
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
Dat.	his	his	his	istis	istis	istis
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	istōs	istās	ista
Abl.	his	his	his	istis	istis	istis

1. **Haec**, for **hae**, feminine plural, is freely used in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in classical prose.

2. The stems of **hic**, **haec**, **hōc** are **ho**, **hā**, strengthened in certain forms by the addition of another pronominal stem, **i**, and of the demonstrative particle **ce**, generally reduced to **c**.

3. The demonstrative enclitic **ce** may be appended to any form in **a**: **hūius-ce**, **hōs-ce**, **hās-ce**, **hīs-ce**.

4. If the interrogative **ne** is appended to a form originally ending in **ce**, the result is generally **cine**, sometimes **cne**: **hīci-ne**, **hīc-ne**.

5. The stems of **iste**, **ista**, **istud** are **isto**, **is**, and those of **ille**, **illa**, **illud** are **illo**, **illā**.

6. In early Latin **ce**, generally shortened to **c**, is sometimes appended to certain cases of **ille** and **iste**. The following forms are the most important, though others occur.

SINGULAR

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	istic	istaec	istūc	illic	illaec	illūc
Dat.	istic	istic	istic	illic	illic	illic
Acc.	istunc	istanc	istūc	illunc	illanc	illūc
Abl.	istōc	istāc	istōc	illōc	illāc	illōc

PLURAL

Nom.	—	istaec	istaec	illisce	illaec	illaec
Acc.	—	—	istaec	—	—	illaec
Abl.	istisce	istisce	istisce	illisce	illisce	illisce

7. Syncopated Forms, compounded of **ecce** or **em**, *lo*, *see*, and certain cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of **ille** and **is**, *he*, *occa*.

¹ Several ancient and rare forms of these pronouns occur. Thus:

Of **hic**: **hec** for **hic**; **hōius** for **hūius**; **hul**, **holc**, for **huic**; **hei**, **heis**, for **hī** **hōrunc**, **hārunc**, for **hōrum**, **hārum**.

Of **iste**: forms in **i**, **ae**, for **ius** in the Genitive and forms in **ō**, **ae**, for **i** in the Dative.

Of **ille**: forms in **i**, **ae**, for **ius** in the Genitive and in **ō**, **ae**, for **i** in the Dative. For **ille**, **illa**, a few forms of **ollus**, **olla**, are found.

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sionally occur in comic poetry: **eccillum** for ecce illum, *lo, see him*; **ellum** for eui illum, *behold him*; **ellam** for em illam, *behold her*; **eccum** for ecce eum, *behold him*; **eccōs** for ecce eōs, *behold them*.

8. Kindred to demonstrative pronouns are the following adjectives: **tālis**, *e, such*; **tantus**, *a, um, so great*; **tot**, *so many*. **Tot** is indeclinable, the rest regular.

9. For **tālis**, the Genitive of a demonstrative with **modī**, the Genitive of **modus**, *measure, kind*, is often used: **hūius modī** or **hūius-modī**, *of this kind, such*. In origin, **hūiusmodī** is simply a limiting Genitive, but it has become practically an indeclinable adjective.

179. Special Pronominal Endings. — The declension of pronouns, in distinction from nouns, shows the following

Special Pronominal Endings

ius, in the Genitive singular: **hūius, istius, illius**.¹

I, in the Dative singular: **istī, illī**.

d, in the neuter singular of the Nominative and Accusative: **id, istud, illud**.

IV. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

180. Determinative Pronouns specify the objects to which they refer. They are:

Is, ea, id; he, she, it, that one, that.

Iipse, ipsa, ipsum; he himself, she herself, itself, self.

Idem, eadem, idem; the same, same.

181. The Determinative Pronouns are declined as follows:

	<i>Is, he.</i> ²			<i>Iipse, self.</i> ³		
	SINGULAR					
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	is	ea	id	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Gen.	ēius	ēius	ēius	ipsius	ipsius	ipsius
Dat.	ei	ei	ei	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Acc.	eum	eam	id	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Abl.	eō	eā	eō	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō

¹ In the ending **ius**, observe that **i** is a consonant when it follows a vowel, as in **hūius**, but a vowel when it follows a consonant, as in **is-ti-us**.

² The stem of **is, ea, id** appears in three different forms, **i, eo, eā**.

³ The stem of **ipse** for **ipsus** is **ipso, ipsā**, but forms of **ipse** occur in which the first element, the demonstrative stem **i**, is declined, while **pse** is treated as

PLURAL

Nom.	il	eae	ea	ipsi	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
Dat.	ils	ils	ils	ipsis	ipsis	ipsis
Acc.	eōs	eās	ea	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ils	ils	ils	ipsis	ipsis	ipsis

Idem, formed by appending **dem** to the pronoun **is**, the *same*, *same*. Only the first part is declined. **Isdem** is shortened to **idem** and **iddem** to **idem**, and **m** is changed to **n** before **d**; see 55, 5.

SINGULAR

PLURAL

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Idem	eadem	idem	Idem	eadem	eadem
Gen.	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	ēiusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
Dat.	eidem	eidem	eidem	isdem	isdem	isdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eandem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	isdem	isdem	isdem

1. **Case Forms**. — Certain less common case forms of **is** and **idem** are the following :

Of **is** : **ēī**, **ēī**, and **eae** for the Dative **ei**; **ēī** and **I** for the Nominative **ī**; **ēīs**, **īs**, and **ibus** for the Dative and Ablative **īs**.¹

Of **idem** : **eidem** and **īdem** for the Nominative plural **idem**, and **eisdem** and **īsdem** for the Dative and Ablative **isdem**.²

V. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

182. The Relative **quī**, *who*, so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows :³

an indeclinable particle : **eum-pse** = **ipsum**; **eam-pse** = **ipsam**, etc.; sometimes combined with **rē** : **rēāpse** = **rē eāpse** = **rē ipsa**, *in reality*. **Ipsus** for **ipse** is not uncommon.

¹ Other ancient and rare forms occur.

² In early Latin, **eisdem** and **īsdem** occur for **idem** in both numbers, and **eidem** and **īdem** for **idem**.

³ The relative **quī**, the interrogative **quis**, **quī**, and the indefinite **quis**, **quī**, are all formed from the same three stems, **qui**, **quo**, **quā**, seen in **qui-s**, **quo-d**, **quā**. **Quī** is for **quo-i**.

Ancient and rare forms of **quī** are **quēi** for Nom. sing. **quī**, **quīs**, **quid**, for **quī**, **quae**, **quod**; **quōius** for **cūius**; **quōi** for **cūi**; **quēs**, **quēi**, for Nom. pl. **quī**; **quēs**, **quē**, for **quibus**; and **quī** for **quō**, **quā**, **quibus**.

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	qui	quae	quod	qui	quae	quae
Gen.	cuius	cuius	cuius	quorum	quarum	quorum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem ¹	quam	quod	quos	quas	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

1. **Qui**² = **quō**, **quā**, and **quibus**, with *whom*, with *which*, *wherewith*, is a Locative of the relative **qui**.

2. **Cum**, when used with the Ablative of the relative is generally appended to it: **quibus-cum**.

3. **Quicumque** and **quisquis**, *whoever*, are called from their signification General Relatives.³ **Quicumque** is declined like **qui**, but its parts are sometimes separated by one or more words: **quā rē cumque** for **quācumque rē**. **Quisquis** is rare except in the forms **quisquis**, **quicquid**,⁴ **quōquō**.

4. Relative Adjectives are: **quālis**, **quāle**, *such as*; **quantus**, **a**, **um**, *so great*; **quot**, *as many as*; **quotus**, **a**, **um**, *of which number*; and the double and compound forms, **quālisquālis**, **quālis-cumque**, etc. **Quot** is indeclinable.

VI. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

163. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. They are the following, with their compounds:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
1.	Quis,	—	quid	<i>who? what?</i> used as a substantive.
2.	Qui,	quae,	quod	<i>which? what? what kind of?</i> used as an adjective.
3.	Uter,	utra,	utrum	<i>which (of two persons)? what or which (of two things)?</i> used both as a substantive and as an adjective.

¹ An Accusative **quom**, also written **cum**, formed directly from the stem **quo**, became the conjunction **quom**, **cum**, *when*, lit. *during which*, i.e. during which time. Indeed, several other conjunctions, as **quam**, **quamquam**, are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns.

² Compare this with the interrogative **qui** *how? why?* (164, 4).

³ Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking **cumque**, like **qui-cumque**, or by being doubled, like **quis-quis**; **quālis-cumque**, **quālis-quālis**, *of whatever kind*; **ubi-cumque**, **ubi-ubi**, *wherever*.

⁴ The form **quidquid** seems to be without good authority.

184. **Quis**,¹ **quid**? used in the singular, is declined as follows:

		SINGULAR		
	M. and F.	Neut.		
Nom.	quis	quid	<i>who</i>	<i>what</i>
Gen.	cūius	cūius	<i>of whom</i>	<i>of what</i>
Dat.	cui	cui	<i>for whom</i>	<i>for what</i>
Acc.	quem	quid	<i>whom</i>	<i>what</i>
Abl.	ā quō	quō	<i>by whom</i>	<i>with what</i>

1. **Qui**,¹ **quae**, **quod**? *which? what kind of?* used as an adjective, is declined like the relative **qui**, **quae**, **quod**.

2. **Uter**, **utra**, **utrum**? *which or what of two persons or things?* has already been given; see 93.

3. **Quis** is sometimes used as an adjective, and **qui** sometimes as a substantive, especially in dependent clauses.

4. **Qui**, a Locative, used chiefly as an adverb, meaning *how? by what means?* occurs in special expressions, as **qui scis?** *how do you know?* **qui fit?** *how does it happen?* and in the interrogative **quīn** = **quī-ne**, *why not?*

5. Strengthened forms of **quis** and **qui** are declined like the simple pronouns **quis** and **qui**:

Quis-nam, — **quid-nam** *who indeed? what indeed?* as a substantive.
Qui-nam, **quae-nam**, **quod-nam** *of what kind indeed?* as an adjective.

6. Note the Interrogative Adjectives: **quālis**, **e**, *of what kind?* **quantus**, **a**, **um**, *how great?* **quot**, *how many?* **quotus**, **a**, **um**, *of what number?*

VII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

185. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are **quis** and **quī**, with their compounds or derivatives.

186. **Quis**, *any one*, and **quī**, *any one, any*, are nearly the same in form and declension as the interrogatives **quis** and **quī**; but they are used chiefly after **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, and **num**, and in relative clauses, and they have **quae** or **qua** in the feminine singular and neuter plural: **sī quae**, **sī qua**.

187. From **quis** and **quī** are formed various other indefinite pronouns and pronominal adjectives, to which **ullus** may be

¹ The ancient and rare forms of the interrogative **quis** and **quī** are nearly the same as those of the relative **qui**.

added. These may be divided according to their meaning as follows:

1. *Some one, any one, some, any; something, anything:*

Substantive			Adjective		
ali-quis ¹	ali-quid	ali-qui	ali-qua	ali-quod	
quis-piam	quid-piam ²	quis-piam	quae-piam	quod-piam ²	
quis-quam	quic-quam ³	ullus	ulla	ullum	

NOTE 1.—**Aliquis** and **quispiam** are occasionally used as adjectives, and **aliqui** occasionally as a substantive. **Aliquis** and **aliqui** have **aliqua** in the neuter plural.

NOTE 2.—**Ullus** is the adjective corresponding to **quisquam**, of which it supplies the plural and sometimes the oblique cases of the singular.

2. *Any one you please, anything you please; any whatever:*

Substantive			Adjective		
qui-vis	quae-vis	quid-vis	qui-vis	quae-vis	quod-vis
qui-libet	quae-libet	quid-libet	qui-libet	quae-libet	quod-libet

3. *A certain one, a certain thing, certain:*

Substantive			Adjective		
qui-dam	quae-dam	quid-dam	qui-dam	quae-dam	quod-dam

NOTE.—In **quidam**, as in **Idem**, **m** is changed to **n** before **d**: **quen-dam**, **quan-dam**; **quōrun-dam**, **quārun-dam**.

4. *Every one, every thing, every, each:*

Substantive		Adjective	
quis-que	quid-que	quis-que	quae-que quod-que

188. The following words, with which we are already familiar, are called Pronominal Adjectives; see 93:

alius,	alter;	uter,	neuter;	ullus,	nūllus.
another,	the other;	which?	neither;	any,	not any.

1. **Nūllus**, *no one, not any, no*, supplies certain cases of **nēmō**, *no one*, and with **rēs**, also of **nihil**, *nothing*:

¹ **Aliquis** is formed from **quis** by prefixing **ali**, seen in **ali-us**; **quis-piam** and **quis-quam** from **quis** by annexing **piam** and **quam**.

² Also written **quippiam** and **quoppiam**.

³ The form **quidquam** seems to be without good authority.

Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.
nēmō	nūllius	nēmīni	nēmīnem	nūllō
nihil	nūllius rei	nūlli rei	nihil	nūllā rē

189. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES

Interrogative	Indefinite	Demonstrative	Relative
quis, quī, who? <i>what?</i> ¹	quis, quī, ² <i>any one, any; aliquis,</i> ² <i>some one, some; quīdam,</i> <i>certain one, certain;</i>	hic, <i>this one, this;</i> ³ iste, <i>that one, that;</i> ille, <i>that one, that;</i> is, <i>he, that;</i>	qui, ² <i>who.</i>
uter, which of two?	uter or alteruter, <i>either of two;</i>	uterque, <i>each, both;</i> ⁴	quī, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet, ² <i>of any kind;</i>	tālis, <i>such;</i>	quālis, ² <i>as.</i>
quantus, how great?	aliquantus, <i>some-what great; quantusvis,</i> <i>as great as you please;</i>	tantus, <i>so great;</i>	quantus, ² <i>as, as great.</i>
quot,⁵ how many?	aliquot, <i>some;</i>	tot, <i>so many;</i>	quot,⁵ as, as many

1. **Nesciō quis,** *I know not who*, has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = **quīdam**, *some one*. So also **nesciō quī**, *I know not which or what* = *some*; **nesciō quot** = **aliquot**, *some, a certain number*.

¹ Observe that the question **quis** or **quī, who** or *what?* may be answered indefinitely by **quis, quī, aliquis**, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by **hic**, *this one*, or **hic quī**, *this one who*; **is**, *he*, or **is quī**, *he who*, etc.

² In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: **quis**, **ali-quis**, **quī**, **quī-dam**, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

³ On **hic**, **iste**, **illo**, and **is**, see 178, 181.

⁴ Or one of the demonstratives, **hic**, **iste**, etc.

⁵ **Aliquot**, **quot**, and **tot** are indeclinable.

VERBS

190. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: **est**, *he is*; **dormit**, *he is sleeping*; **legit**, *he reads*.

1. Transitive Verbs admit a direct object of the action: **servum verberat**, *he beats the slave*.

2. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: **puer currit**, *the boy runs*.

3. Some verbs may be used either with or without an object, i.e. either transitively or intransitively.

4. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES

191. The Active Voice represents the subject as acting or existing:

Pater filium amat, *the father loves his son*; **est**, *he is*.

192. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing:

Filius a patre amatur, *the son is loved by his father*.

1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see **302**, 6.

2. Deponent Verbs¹ are passive in form, but not in sense: **loquor**, *I speak*. But see **222**.

II. MOODS

193. The Indicative Mood represents the action of the verb as a Fact. It may assert or assume a fact, or it may inquire after the fact:

Legit, *he is reading*. **Si legit**, *if he is reading*. **Legitne**, *is he reading?*

194. The Subjunctive Mood in general represents the action of the verb simply as Possible, as Desired, or as Conceived:

Amemus patriam, *let us love our country*. **Forsitan quaerātis**, *perhaps you may inquire*.²

¹ So called from **dēponō**, *I lay aside*, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning.

² But the use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax.

195. The Imperative Mood is used in Commands and Entreaties:

Valētūdinem tuam curā, take care of your health.

III. TENSES

196. There are six tenses, three for Incomplete Action and three for Completed Action:

1. Tenses for Incomplete Action:

Present:	amō, I love, I am loving, I do love.
Imperfect:	amābam, I was loving, I loved.
Future:	amābō, I shall love.

2. Tenses for Completed Action:

Perfect:	amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
Pluperfect:	amāveram, I had loved.
Future Perfect:	amāverō, I shall have loved.

NOTE 1. — The Indicative Mood has the six tenses, the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.

197. The Latin Perfect, unlike the English, has a twofold use:

1. It sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with *have* — *they have loved*. It is then called the Present Perfect, or Perfect Definite.
2. It sometimes corresponds to our Imperfect, or Past tense — *they loved*. It is then called the Historical Perfect, or Perfect Indefinite.

198. Principal and Historical. — Tenses are also distinguished as

1. Principal or Primary Tenses:

Present:	amō, I love.
Present Perfect:	amāvī, I have loved.¹
Future:	amābō, I shall love.
Future Perfect:	amāverō, I shall have loved.

2. Historical or Secondary Tenses:

Imperfect:	amābam, I was loving.
Historical Perfect:	amāvī, I loved.¹
Pluperfect:	amāveram, I had loved.

¹ Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses — the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen

199. Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural, and three persons, First, Second, and Third.

1. The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the Finite Verb.

200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:

1. The Infinitive is a verbal noun:¹

Exire ex urbe volō, *I wish to go out of the city.*

2. The Gerund gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the Second Declension, used only in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative singular. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in *ing*:

Ars vivendi, *the art of living.* **Ad discendum prōpēnsus**, *inclined to learning.*

3. The Supine gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the Fourth Declension. It has a form in **um** and a form in **ū**:

Auxillium postulātum vēnit, *he came to ask aid.* **Difficile dictū est**, *it is difficult to tell.*

4. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective.² A verb may have four participles, — two in the Active, the Present and the Future, and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive³:

Active, Present and Future: **amāns**, *loving*; **amātūrus**, *about to love.*

Passive, Perfect and Gerundive: **amātus**, *loved*; **amandus**, *deserving to be loved.*

in the Greek Aorist: **amāvī** = *πεφίληκα*, *I have loved*; **amāvi** = *εφίλησα*, *I loved*. The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact — *I loved*; while the latter regards it as in progress — *I was loving*.

¹ The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin, it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. In the example observe that the Infinitive **exire** is translated by the English Infinitive, *to go out*.

² Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns. Participles are sometimes best translated by English Participles and sometimes by Clauses.

³ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle.

CONJUGATION

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations,¹ distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	Characteristics	Infinitive Endings
CONJ. I.	ā	ā-re
II.	ē	ē-re
III.	o	o-re
IV.	i	i-re

202. Principal Parts.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine, or the Neuter of the Perfect Participle,² are called from their importance the Principal Parts of the verb.

1. In verbs which lack both the Supine and the Perfect Participle, the Future Participle may serve as one of the Principal Parts.

203. The Principal Parts are the stem forms of the verb, as they contain the three stems which form the basis of all verbal inflections, viz.:

1. The verb stem, which remains unchanged in all the various forms of both voices of the verb.

2. Two special stems,³ the Present Stem, often identical with the verb stem, found in the Present Indicative, and the Perfect Stem, found in the Perfect Indicative.

204. The entire conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the principal parts by means of the proper endings.⁴

1. **Sum, I am**, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation must be given at the outset.

¹ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection.

² The masculine form of the participle, sometimes treated as one of the Principal Parts, is unfortunately found only in transitive verbs, while the form here adopted covers nearly two hundred and fifty Supines and all Perfect Participles whether used personally or impersonally.

³ For the treatment of stems, see 246-253.

⁴ In the paradigms of regular verbs the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the present stem (233) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.

205. *Sum, I am; Stems, es, fu.*¹

PRINCIPAL PARTS					
Pres. Ind.		Pres. Inf.		Perf. Ind.	
<i>sum</i> ²		<i>esse</i> ²		<i>fuī</i>	
					<i>futūrus</i>
INDICATIVE MOOD					
PRESENT TENSE					
	SINGULAR			PLURAL	
<i>sum</i>	<i>I am</i>		<i>sumus</i> ³	<i>we are</i>	
<i>es</i>	<i>thou art, you are</i>		<i>estis</i>	<i>you are</i>	
<i>est</i>	<i>he is</i>		<i>sunt</i>	<i>they are</i>	
IMPERFECT					
<i>eram</i>	<i>I was</i>		<i>erāmus</i>	<i>we were</i>	
<i>erās</i>	<i>thou wast, you were</i>		<i>erātis</i>	<i>you were</i>	
<i>erat</i>	<i>he was</i>		<i>erant</i>	<i>they were</i>	
FUTURE					
<i>erō</i>	<i>I shall be</i>		<i>erimus</i>	<i>we shall be</i>	
<i>eris</i>	<i>thou wilt be</i> ⁴		<i>eritis</i>	<i>you will be</i>	
<i>erit</i>	<i>he will be</i>		<i>erunt</i>	<i>they will be</i>	
PERFECT					
<i>fuī</i>	<i>I have been</i> ⁵		<i>fuimus</i>	<i>we have been</i>	
<i>fuisti</i>	<i>thou hast been</i> ⁴		<i>fuistis</i>	<i>you have been</i>	
<i>fuit</i>	<i>he has been</i>		<i>fuērunt</i> <i>fuēre</i>	<i>they have been</i>	
PLUPERFECT					
<i>fueram</i>	<i>I had been</i>		<i>fuerāmus</i>	<i>we had been</i>	
<i>fuerās</i>	<i>thou hadst been</i> ⁴		<i>fuerātis</i>	<i>you had been</i>	
<i>fuerat</i>	<i>he had been</i>		<i>fuerant</i>	<i>they had been</i>	
FUTURE PERFECT					
<i>fuerō</i>	<i>I shall have been</i>		<i>fuerimus</i>	<i>we shall have been</i>	
<i>fueris</i>	<i>thou wilt have been</i> ⁴		<i>fueritis</i>	<i>you will have been</i>	
<i>fuerit</i>	<i>he will have been</i>		<i>fuerint</i>	<i>they will have been</i>	

¹ The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, *am, was, been; go, went, gone.*

² Observe that the stem *es* has two forms, *es*, seen in *es-se, es-t, es-tis*, and in *er-am*, for *es-am* (50), and a weak form, *s*, seen in *s-um, s-umus, s-unt*.

³ Observe that the endings which are added to the stems *es* and *fu* are distinguished by the type.

⁴ Or, *you will be, you have been, you had been, you will have been.* The use of *thou* is confined chiefly to solemn discourse.

⁵ Or, *I was; see 198, 2.*

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
sim	<i>may I be, let me be</i>	simus	<i>let us be</i>
sis	<i>mayst thou be¹</i>	sitis	<i>be ye, may you be</i>
sit	<i>let him be, may he be</i>	sint	<i>let them be</i>

IMPERFECT

essem	<i>I should be</i>	essēmus	<i>we should be</i>
essēs	<i>thou wouldst be</i>	essētis	<i>you would be</i>
esset	<i>he would be</i>	essent	<i>they would be</i>

PERFECT

fuerim	<i>I may have been</i>	fuerimus	<i>we may have been</i>
fueris	<i>thou mayst have been</i>	fueritis	<i>you may have been</i>
fuerit	<i>he may have been</i>	fuerint	<i>they may have been</i>

PLUPERFECT

fuissem	<i>I should have been</i>	fuissemus	<i>we should have been</i>
fuisēs	<i>thou wouldst have been</i>	fuisētis	<i>you would have been</i>
fuisset	<i>he would have been</i>	fuisSENT	<i>they would have been</i>

IMPERATIVE

Pres. es	<i>be thou</i>	este	<i>be ye</i>
Fut. estō	<i>thou shalt be²</i>	estōte	<i>ye shall be</i>
estō	<i>he shall be</i>	suntō	<i>they shall be</i>

INFINITIVE

Pres. esse	<i>to be</i>
Perf. fuisse	<i>to have been</i>
Fut. futūrum³ esse	<i>to be about to be.</i>

PARTICIPLE

Fut. **futūrus³** *about to be*

1. In the paradigm all the forms beginning with **e** or **s** are from the stem **es**; all others from the stem **fu**.⁴

2. Rare Forms. — **Forem, forēs, foret, forent, fore, for** *essem, essēs, esset, essent, futūrum esse*; **siem, siēs, siet, sient, or fuam, fuās. fuat, fuant, for sim, sis, sit, sint.**

¹ Or *be thou*, or *may you be*, but remember that the proper translation of the Subjunctive can be best learned from the Syntax.

² Or like the Present, or with *let*: *be thou*; *let him be*.

³ **Futūrus** is declined like **bonus**, and the Accusative **futūrum** in **futūrum esse** like the Accusative of **bonus**: **futūrum, am, um**; **futūrōs, ās, a**.

⁴ **Es** and **fu** are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms they are in themselves roots.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

206. Stems and Principal Parts of Amō.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā¹.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Neut. Part.
amō	amāre	amāvī	amātum ²

207. Active Voice. — Amō, *I love*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

	SINGULAR		PLURAL
amō ¹	<i>I love</i> ³	amāmus	<i>we love</i>
amās	<i>thou lovest, you love</i>	amātis	<i>you love</i>
amat	<i>he loves</i>	amant	<i>they love</i>

IMPERFECT

amābam	<i>I was loving</i>	amābāmus	<i>we were loving</i>
amābās	<i>you were loving</i> ⁴	amābātis	<i>you were loving</i>
amābat	<i>he was loving</i>	amābant	<i>they were loving</i>

FUTURE

amābō	<i>I shall love</i>	amābimus	<i>we shall love</i>
amābis	<i>you will love</i>	amābitis	<i>you will love</i>
amābit	<i>he will love</i>	amābunt	<i>they will love</i>

PERFECT

amāvī	<i>I have loved</i> ⁵	amāvimus	<i>we have loved</i>
amāvisti	<i>you have loved</i>	amāvistis	<i>you have loved</i>
amāvit	<i>he has loved</i>	amāverunt, amāvere	<i>they have loved</i>

PLUPERFECT

amāveram	<i>I had loved</i>	amāverāmus	<i>we had loved</i>
amāverās	<i>you had loved</i>	amāverātis	<i>you had loved</i>
amāverat	<i>he had loved</i>	amāverant	<i>they had loved</i>

FUTURE PERFECT

amāverō	<i>I shall have loved</i>	amāverimus	<i>we shall have loved</i>
amāveris	<i>you will have loved</i>	amāveritis	<i>you will have loved</i>
amāverit	<i>he will have loved</i>	amāverint	<i>they will have loved</i>

¹ The final *a* of the stem disappears in amō, amem, etc., and in amor, amer, etc.

² Amātum, Supine or neuter Perfect Participle.

³ Or *I am loving, I do love*. So in the Imperfect, *I loved, I was loving, I did love*.

⁴ Or *thou wast loving*; but see 205, footnote 4.

⁵ Or *I loved*; see 196, 2.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>may I love</i>	<i>amēmus</i>	<i>let us love</i>
<i>amēs</i>	<i>may you love</i>	<i>amētis</i>	<i>may you love</i>
<i>amet</i>	<i>let him love</i>	<i>ament</i>	<i>let them love</i>

IMPERFECT

<i>amārem</i>	<i>I should love</i>	<i>amārēmus</i>	<i>we should love</i>
<i>amārēs</i>	<i>you would love</i>	<i>amārētis</i>	<i>you would love</i>
<i>amāret</i>	<i>he would love</i>	<i>amārent</i>	<i>they would love</i>

PERFECT

<i>amāverim</i>	<i>I may have loved</i>	<i>amāverimus</i>	<i>we may have loved</i>
<i>amāveris</i>	<i>you may have loved</i>	<i>amāveritis</i>	<i>you may have loved</i>
<i>amāverit</i>	<i>he may have loved</i>	<i>amāverint</i>	<i>they may have loved</i>

PLUPERFECT

<i>amāvissē</i>	<i>I should have loved</i>	<i>amāvissēmus</i>	<i>we should have loved</i>
<i>amāvissēs</i>	<i>you would have loved</i>	<i>amāvissētis</i>	<i>you would have loved</i>
<i>amāvisset</i>	<i>he would have loved</i>	<i>amāvissent</i>	<i>they would have loved</i>

IMPERATIVE

Pres <i>amā</i>	<i>love thou</i>	<i>amāte</i>	<i>love ye</i>
Fut. <i>amātō</i>	<i>thou shalt love</i>	<i>amātōte</i>	<i>ye shall love</i>
<i>amātō</i>	<i>he shall love</i>	<i>amantō</i>	<i>they shall love</i>

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. <i>amāre</i>	<i>to love</i>	Pres <i>amāns</i> ¹	<i>loving</i>
Perf. <i>amāvisse</i>	<i>to have loved</i>		
Fut. <i>amātūrum</i> ²	<i>to be about to love</i>	Fut. <i>amātūrus</i> ²	<i>about to love</i>

love

GERUND

SUPINE

Gen. <i>amandī</i>	<i>of loving</i>		
Dat. <i>amandō</i>	<i>for loving</i>		
Acc. <i>amandum</i>	<i>loving</i>	Acc <i>amātum</i>	<i>to love</i>
Abl. <i>amandō</i>	<i>by loving</i>	Abl. <i>amātū</i>	<i>to love, be loved</i>

¹ For declension, see 123² *Amātūrus* is declined like *bonus*, and *amātūrum* like the Accusative of *bonus*.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

208. Passive Voice. — Amor, *I am loved*.VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, *amā*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am loved

SINGULAR	PLURAL
amōr	amāmur
amāris	amāmini
amātur	amantur

IMPERFECT

I was loved

amābar	amābāmur
amābāris, amābāre	amābāmini
amābātur	amābantur

FUTURE

I shall be loved

amābor	amābimur
amāberis, amābere	amābimini
amābitur	amābuntur

PERFECT

I have been loved or I was loved

amātus sum ¹	amātī sumus
amātus es	amātī estis
amātus est	amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been loved

amātus eram ¹	amātī erāmus
amātus erās	amātī erātis
amātus erat	amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been loved

amātus erō ¹	amātī erimus
amātus eris	amātī eritis
amātus erit	amātī erunt

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fui for amātus sum. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be loved, let him be loved

SINGULAR	PLURAL
amē	amēmur
amēris, amēre	amēminī
amētur	amentur

IMPERFECT

I should be loved, he would be loved

amārer	amārēmur
amārēris, amārēre	amārēminī
amārētur	amārentur

PERFECT

I may have been loved, he may have been loved

amātus sim ¹	amātī simus
amātus sis	amātī sitis
amātus sit	amātī sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been loved, he would have been loved

amātus essem ¹	amātī essemus
amātus esses	amātī essētis
amātus esset	amātī essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. amāre	<i>be thou loved</i>	amāminī	<i>be ye loved</i>
Fut. amātor	<i>thou shalt be loved</i>	amantor	<i>they shall be loved</i>
amātor	<i>he shall be loved</i>		

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. amārī	<i>to be loved</i>		
Perf. amātum esse ¹	<i>to have been loved</i>	Perf. amātus	<i>having been loved</i>
Fut. amātum irī	<i>to be about to be loved</i>	Ger. ² amandus	<i>to be loved, deserving to be loved</i>

¹ *Fuerim, fueris, etc.*, are sometimes used for *sim, sis, etc.* So also *fuissem, fuisses, etc.*, for *essem, esses, etc.*: rarely *fuisse* for *esse*.

² Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, 4.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

209. Stems and Principal Parts of *Monēō*.VERB STEM, *mon*; PRESENT STEM, *monē*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

*monēō**monēre**monui**monitum*210. Active Voice. — *Monēō*, *I advise*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I advise

SINGULAR

*monēō**monēs**monet*

PLURAL

*monēmus**monētis**monent*

IMPERFECT

*I was advising, or I advised**monēbam**monēbās**monēbat**monēbāmus**monēbātis**monēbant*

FUTURE

*I shall advise**monēbō**monēbīs**monēbit**monēbimus**monēbitis**monēbunt*

PERFECT

*I have advised, or I advised**monui**monuisti**monuit**monuimus**monuistis**monuerunt, monuere*

PLUPERFECT

*I had advised**monueram**monuerās**monuerat**monuerāmus**monuerātis**monuerant*

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have advised**monuerō**monueris**monuerit**monuerimus**monueritis**monuerint*

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I advise, let him advise

SINGULAR

monēam

monēās

monēat

PLURAL

monēāmus

monēātis

monēant

IMPERFECT

I should advise, he would advise

monērem

monērēs

monēret

monērēmus

monērētis

monērent

PERFECT

I may have advised, he may have advised

monuerim

monueris

monuerit

monuerimus

monueritis

monuerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have advised, he would have advised

monuissē

monuissēs

monuisset

monuissēmus

monuissētis

monuissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. monē *advise thou*

Fut. monētō *thou shalt advise*

monētō *he shall advise*

monēte *advise ye*

monētōte *ye shall advise*

monentō *they shall advise*

INFINITIVE

Pres. monēre *to advise*

Perf. monuisse *to have advised*

Fut. monitūrum esse *to be about to advise*

PARTICIPLE

Pres. monēns *advising*

Fut. monitūrus *about to advise*

GERUND

Gen. monendī *of advising*

Dat. monendō *for advising*

Acc. monendum *advising*

Abl. monendō *by advising*

SUPINE

Acc. monitum *to advise*

Abl. monitū *to advise, be advised*

MORPHOLOGY

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

211. Passive Voice. — Moneor, *I am advised*.

VERB STEM, **mon** ; PRESENT STEM, **monē**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am advised

SINGULAR	PLURAL
mon eor	mon ēmur
mon ēris	mon ēmini
mon ētur	mon entur

IMPERFECT

I was advised

mon ēbar	mon ēbāmur
mon ēbāris , mon ēbāre	mon ēbāmini
mon ēbātur	mon ēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be advised

mon ēbor	mon ēbimur
mon ēberis , mon ēbere	mon ēbimini
mon ēbitur	mon ēbuntur

PERFECT

I have been advised, I was advised

monitus sum ¹	monit ī sumus
monitus es	monit ī estis
monitus est	monit ī sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been advised

monitus eram ¹	monit ī erāmus
monitus erās	monit ī erātis
monitus erat	monit ī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been advised

monitus erō ¹	monit ī erimus
monitus eris	monit ī eritis
monitus erit	monit ī erunt

¹ See 208, footnotes.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be advised, let him be advised

SINGULAR	PLURAL
monēar	monēāmur
monēāris, monēāre	monēāmini
monēātur	monēantur

IMPERFECT

I should be advised, he would be advised

monērer	monērēmur
monērēris, monērēre	monērēmini
monērētur	monērēntur

PERFECT

I may have been advised, he may have been advised

monitus sim ¹	moniti simus
monitus sis	moniti sitis
monitus sit	moniti sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been advised, he would have been advised

monitus essem ¹	moniti essemus
monitus esses	moniti essetis
monitus esset	moniti essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. monēre	<i>be thou advised</i>	monēmini	<i>be ye advised</i>
Fut. monētor	<i>thou shalt be advised</i>	monentor	<i>they shall be advised</i>
monētor	<i>he shall be advised</i>		

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. monēri	<i>to be advised</i>	Perf. monitus	<i>having been advised</i>
Perf. monitum esse ¹	<i>to have been advised</i>	Ger. monendus	<i>to be advised, deserving to be advised</i>
Ger. monitum iri	<i>to be about to be advised</i>		

¹ See 208, footnotes.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

212. Stems and Principal Parts of *Regō*.VERB STEM, *reg*; PRESENT STEM, *rege*, *rego*¹

PRINCIPAL PARTS

*regō**regere**rēxī*²*rēctum*²213. Active Voice. — *Regō*, *I rule*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I rule

SINGULAR

*regō**regis**regit*

PLURAL

*regimus**regitis**regunt*

IMPERFECT

*I was ruling, or I ruled**regēbam**regēbās**regēbat**regēbāmus**regēbātis**regēbant*

FUTURE

*I shall rule**regam**regēs**reget**regēmus**regētis**regent*

PERFECT

*I have ruled, or I ruled**rēxī**rēxistī**rēxit**rēximus**rēxistis**rēxerunt, rēxēre*

PLUPERFECT

*I had ruled**rēxeram**rēxerās**rēxerat**rēxerāmus**rēxerātis**rēxerant*

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have ruled**rēxerō**rēxerīs**rēxerit**rēxerimus**rēxeritis**rēxerint*

¹ The characteristic of this conjugation is the thematic vowel which connects the stem and the ending. It originally had the form of *e* or *o*, but in classical Latin it generally appears as *i* or *u*, as in **reget, regit; *regont, regunt*.

² *Rēxī*, from **rec-si*, from **reg-si*; see §1. *Rēc-tum*, from **reg-tum*; see §5, 1.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I rule, let him rule

SINGULAR

regam
regās
regat

PLURAL

regāmus
regātis
regant

IMPERFECT

I should rule, he would rule

regerem
regerēs
regeret

regerēmus
regerētis
regerent

PERFECT

I may have ruled, he may have ruled

rēxerim
rēxeris
rēxerit

rēxerimus
rēxeritis
rēxerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have ruled, he would have ruled

rēxissem
rēxisse
rēxisset

rēxissemus
rēxissetis
rēxisissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. rege rule thou
Fut. regitō thou shalt rule
 regitō he shall rule

regite rule ye
regitōte ye shall rule
reguntō they shall rule

INFINITIVE

Pres. regere to rule
Perf. rēxisse to have ruled
Fut. rēctūrum esse to be about to rule

PARTICIPLE

Pres. regēns ruling
Fut. rēctūrus about to rule

GERUND

Gen. regendī of ruling
Dat. regendō for ruling
Acc. regendum ruling
Abl. regendō by ruling

SUPINE

Acc. rēctum to rule
Abl. rēctū to rule, be ruled

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

214. Passive Voice. — Regor, *I am ruled*.VERB STEM, *reg* ; PRESENT STEM, *rege*, *rego*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am ruled

SINGULAR

regor
regeris
regitur

PLURAL

regimur
regimini
reguntur

IMPERFECT

I was ruled

regēbar
regēbāris, regēbāre
regēbātur

regēbāmur
regēbāmini
regēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be ruled

regar
regēris, regēre
regētur

regēmur
regēmini
regentur

PERFECT

I have been ruled, or I was ruled

rēctus sum¹
rēctus es
rēctus est

rēcti sumus
rēcti estis
rēcti sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been ruled

rēctus eram¹
rēctus erās
rēctus erat

rēcti erāmus
rēcti erātis
rēcti erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been ruled

rēctus erō¹
rēctus eris
rēctus erit

rēcti erimus
rēcti eritis
rēcti erunt

¹ See 208, footnotes.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be ruled, let him be ruled

SINGULAR

regar
regāris, regāre
regātur

PLURAL

regāmur
regāmini
regantur

IMPERFECT

I should be ruled, he would be ruled

regerer
regerēris, regerēre
regerētur

regerēmur
regerēmini
regerentur

PERFECT

I may have been ruled, he may have been ruled

rēctus sim¹
rēctus sis
rēctus sit

rēcti simus
rēcti sitis
rēcti sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled

rēctus essem¹
rēctus essēs
rēctus esset

rēcti essemus
rēcti essētis
rēcti essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. regere *be thou ruled*regimini *be ye ruled*

Fut. regitor *thou shalt be ruled*
regitor *he shall be ruled*

reguntor *they shall be ruled*

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. regī *to be ruled*Perf. rēctum esse¹ *to have been ruled* Perf. rēctus *having been ruled*¹

Fut. rēctum iri *to be about to be ruled* Ger. regendus *to be ruled, deserving*
ruled *to be ruled*

¹ Rēc-tus from *reg-tus; see 55, 1.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

215. Stems and Principal Parts of *Audiō*.VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, *audi*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

*audiō**audire**audivi**audītum*216. Active Voice. — *Audiō, I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I hear

SINGULAR

*audiō**audis**audit*

PLURAL

*audimus**auditis**audiunt*

IMPERFECT

*I was hearing, or I heard**audiebam**audiebās**audiebat**audiebāmus**audiebātis**audiebant*

FUTURE

*I shall hear**audiam**audietis**audiet**audiemus**audietis**audient*

PERFECT

*I have heard, or I heard**audivi**audivisti**audivit**audivimus**audivistis**audiverunt, audivere*

PLUPERFECT

*I had heard**audiveram**audiverās**audiverat**audiverāmus**audiverātis**audiverant*

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have heard**audiverō**audiveritis**audiverit**audiverimus**audiveritis**audiverint*

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I hear, let him hear

SINGULAR

audiam
audias
audiat

PLURAL

audiamus
audiatis
audiant

IMPERFECT

I should hear, he would hear

audirem
audirēs
audiret

audirēmus
audirētis
audirent

PERFECT

I may have heard, he may have heard

audiverim
audiveris
audiverit

audiverimus
audiveritis
audiverint

PLUPERFECT

I should have heard, he would have heard

audivissem
audivissēs
audivisset

audivissemus
audivissetis
audivissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. **audi** *hear thou*
 Fut. **auditō** *thou shalt hear*
 audītō *he shall hear*

audite *hear ye*
auditōte *ye shall hear*
audiuntō *they shall hear*

INFINITIVE

Pres. **audire** *to hear*
 Perf. **audivisse** *to have heard*
 Fut. **auditūrum esse** *to be about to hear*

PARTICIPLE

Pres. **audiēns** *hearing*
 Fut. **auditūrus** *about to hear*

GERUND

Gen. **audiendī** *of hearing*
 Dat. **audiendō** *for hearing*
 Acc. **audiendum** *hearing*
 Abl. **audiendō** *by hearing*

SUPINE

Acc. **auditum** *to hear*
 Abl. **audītū** *to hear, be heard*

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

217. Passive Voice. — Audior, *I am heard*.VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, **audi**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am heard

SINGULAR

audior

audiris

auditur

PLURAL

audimur

audimini

audiuntur

IMPERFECT

I was heard

audiēbar

audiēbāris, audiēbāre

audiēbātur

audiēbāmur

audiēbāmini

audiēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be heard

audiar

audiēris, audiēre

audietur

audiēmur

audiēmini

audientur

PERFECT

*I have been heard or I was heard*auditus sum¹

auditus es

auditus est

auditi sumus

auditi estis

auditi sunt

PLUPERFECT

*I had been heard*auditus eram¹

auditus erās

auditus erat

auditi erāmus

auditi erātis

auditi erant

FUTURE PERFECT

*I shall have been heard*auditus erō¹

auditus eris

auditus erit

auditi erimus

auditi eritis

auditi erunt

¹ See 208, footnotes.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be heard, let him be heard

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audiar	audiamur
audiaris, audiare	audiāmini
audiatur	audiantur

IMPERFECT

I should be heard, he would be heard

audirer	audirēmur
audirēris, audirere	audirēmini
audirētur	audirentur

PERFECT

I may have been heard, he may have been heard

auditus sim	auditi simus
auditus sis	auditi sitis
auditus sit	auditi sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been heard, he would have been heard

auditus essem	auditi essemus
auditus essēs	auditi essētis
auditus esset	auditi essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres. audire	be thou heard	audiāmini	be ye heard
Fut. auditor	thou shalt be heard		
auditor	he shall be heard	audiantur	they shall be heard

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE

Pres. audiri	to be heard		
Perf. auditum esse	to have been heard	Perf. auditus	having been heard
Fut. auditum iri	to be about to be heard	Ger. audiendus	to be heard, deserving to be heard

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

218. Active Voice: Present System.¹

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

am -ō	-ās	-at	-āmus	-ātis	-ant
mon -eo	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
reg -ō	-is	-it	-imus	-itis	-unt
aud -iō	-is	-it	-imus	-itis	-iunt

IMPERFECT

am -ā	} -bam	-bās	-bat	-bāmus	-bātis	-bant
mon -ē						
reg -ē						
aud -i-ē						

FUTURE

am -ā	} -bō	-bis	-bit	-bimus	-bitis	-bunt
mon -ē						
reg -i	} -am	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
aud -i						

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

am -m	} -m	-ēs	-et	-emus	-ētis	-ent
mon -ē						
reg -i						
aud -i						

IMPERFECT

am -ā	} -rem	-rēs	-ret	-rēmus	-rētis	-rent
mon -ē						
reg -e						
aud -i						

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

FUTURE

SINGULAR PLURAL

SINGULAR

PLURAL

am -ā	am -ā	} -te	am -ā	} -tō -tō	am -ā	} -tōte	am -an	} -tō
mon -ē	mon -ē		mon -ē		mon -en		mon -en	
reg -e	reg -i		reg -i		reg -un		reg -un	
aud -i	aud -i		aud -i		aud -iun		aud -iun	

PRESENT INFINITIVE

PRESENT PARTICIPLE

GERUND.

am -ā	} -re	am -āns	} -di
mon -ē		mon -ēns	
reg -e		reg -ēns	
aud -i		aud -iēns	

¹ For the Present System, see 233.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

219. Passive Voice: Present System.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

am -ā	-or	am -ā	-ris	am -ā	-tur	-mur	-mini	am -an	-tur
mon -ē		mon -ē		mon -ē				mon -en	
reg -e		reg -e		reg -i				reg -un	
aud -i		aud -i		aud -i				aud -iun	

IMPERFECT

am -ā	-bar	-bāris ¹	-bātur	-bāmur	-bāmini	-bantur
mon -ē						
reg -e						
aud -i						

FUTURE

am -ā	-bor	-beris	-bitur	-bimur	-bimini	-buntur
mon -ē						
reg -e						
aud -i		-ēris	-ētur	-ēmur	-ēmini	-entur

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

am -ā	-er	-ēris	-ētur	-ēmur	-ēmini	-entur
mon -ē						
reg -e		-āris	-ātur	-āmur	-āmini	-antur
aud -i						

IMPERFECT

am -ā	-rer	-rēris ¹	-rētur	-rēmur	-rēmini	-rentur
mon -ē						
reg -e						
aud -i						

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

SINGULAR	PLURAL
am -ā	am -ā
mon -ē	mon -ē
reg -e	reg -i
aud -i	aud -i
-re	-mini

FUTURE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
am -ā	am -an
mon -ē	mon -en
reg -i	reg -un
aud -i	aud -iun
-tor	-tor
	-tor

PRESENT INFINITIVE

am -ā	-rī
mon -ē	
aud -i	
reg -i	

GERUNDIVE

am -an	-dus
mon -en	
aud -ien	
reg -en	

¹ In the second person singular of the passive, except in the Present Indicative, the ending *re* is often used instead of *ris*: *amābā-re* or *amābā-re*.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

220. Active Voice: 1. Perfect System.¹

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE

amāv					
monu	-istī	-it	-imus	-istis	-ērunt, -ēre
rēx					
audīv					

PLUPERFECT

amāv	}				
monu		-eram	-erās	-erat	-erāmus
rēx		-erātis	-erant		
audīv					

FUTURE PERFECT

amāv	}				
monu		-erō	-eris	-erit	-erimus
rēx		-eritis	-erint		
audīv					

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amāv	}				
monu		-erim	-eris	-erit	-erimus
rēx		-eritis	-erint		
audīv					

PLUPERFECT

amāv	}				
monu		-issem	-issēs	-isset	-issēmus
rēx		-issētis	-issent		
audīv					

PERFECT INFINITIVE

amāv	
monu	-isse
rēx	
audīv	

2. Participial System

FUTURE INFINITIVE		FUTURE PARTICIPLE	SUPINE
amā	}		
moni		-tūrus	-tum -tū
rē			
audi			

¹ For the Perfect System, see 234, and for the Participial System, 235.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

221. Passive Voice: Participial System.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus sum	-tus es	-tus est	-tī ¹ sumus	-tī estis	-tī sunt
-----------------------------	---	----------	---------	----------	------------------------	-----------	----------

PLUPERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus eram	-tus erās	-tus erat	-tī erāmus	-tī erātis	-tī erant
-----------------------------	---	-----------	-----------	-----------	------------	------------	-----------

FUTURE PERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus erō	-tus eris	-tus erit	-tī erimus	-tī eritis	-tī erunt
-----------------------------	---	----------	-----------	-----------	------------	------------	-----------

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus sim	-tus sis	-tus sit	-tī simus	-tī sitis	-tī sint
-----------------------------	---	----------	----------	----------	-----------	-----------	----------

PLUPERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus essem	-tus esses	-tus esset	-tī essēmus	-tī essētis	-tī essent
-----------------------------	---	------------	------------	------------	-------------	-------------	------------

INFINITIVE

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	PERFECT -tum esse	FUTURE -tum iri
-----------------------------	---	----------------------	--------------------

PERFECT PARTICIPLE

amā mon-i rēc audī	}	-tus ²
-----------------------------	---	-------------------

¹ In the plural, tus becomes tī: amā-tī sumus, etc.

² From the comparative view presented in 218-221, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System. See also 201, footnote.

DEPONENT VERBS

222. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the passive voice, with the signification of the active. But

1. They have also in the active the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine.

2. The Gerundive has the passive signification; sometimes, also, the Perfect Participle: **hortandus**, *to be exhorted*; **expertus**, *tried*.

3. The Future Infinitive has the active form.

223. Deponent verbs are found in each of the four conjugations. Their principal parts are the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, and Perfect Indicative:

	I	II	III	IV
I. Hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum	<i>to exhort</i>	
II. Vereor	verērī	veritus sum	<i>to fear</i>	
III. Loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	<i>to speak</i>	
IV. Blandior	blandīrī	blanditus sum	<i>to flatter</i>	
	I	II	III	IV
Pres.	hortor, <i>I exhort</i>	vereor, <i>I fear</i>	loquor, <i>I speak</i>	blandior, <i>I flatter</i>
	hortāris, etc.	verēris, etc.	loqueris, etc.	blandīris, etc.
Imp.	hortābar	verēbar	loquēbar	blandiēbar
Fut.	hortābor	verēbor	loquar	blandiar
Perf.	hortātus sum	veritus sum	locūtus sum	blanditus sum
Plup.	hortātus eram	veritus eram	locūtus eram	blanditus eram
F. P.	hortātus erō	veritus erō	locūtus erō	blanditus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Pres.	horter	verear	loquar	blandiar
Imp.	hortārer	verērer	loquerer	blandirer
Perf.	hortātus sim	veritus sim	locūtus sim	blanditus sim
Plup.	hortātus essem	veritus essem	locūtus essem	blanditus essem

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	hortāre	verēre	loquere	blandire
Fut.	hortātor	verētor	loquitōr	blanditor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	hortārī	verērī	loquī	blandīrī
Perf.	hortātum esse	veritum esse	locūtum esse	blanditum esse
Fut.	hortātūrum esse	veritūrum esse	locūtūrum esse	blanditūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	hortāns	verens	loquēns	blandiēns
Fut.	hortātūrus	veritūrus	locūtūrus	blanditūrus
Perf.	hortātus	veritus	locūtus	blanditus
Ger.	hortandus	verendus	loquendus	blandiendus

GERUND

hortandi, etc.	verendi, etc.	loquendi, etc.	blandiendi, etc.
----------------	---------------	----------------	------------------

SUPINE

hortātum	veritum	locūtum	blanditum
hortātū	veritū	locūtū	blanditū

SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS

224. Semi-Dependent Verbs have active forms in the Present system and passive forms in the Perfect system:

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	to dare
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvissus su.	to rejoice
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	to be wont
fidēō	fidere	fissus sum	to trust

1. The Perfect Participles of a few Intransitive verbs have the active meaning, but they are generally used as adjectives:

adultus, <i>having grown up, adult,</i>	from	adolēscere, <i>to grow up</i>
cautus, <i>taking care, cautious,</i>	"	cavēre, <i>to take care</i>
cēnātus, <i>having dined,</i>	"	cēnāre, <i>to dine</i>
placitus, <i>pleasing,</i>	"	placēre, <i>to please</i>
prāsus, <i>having breakfasted,</i>	"	prandēre, <i>to breakfast</i>

2. **Dēvertor**, *to turn aside*, and **revertor**, *to return*, have active forms in the Perfect system, borrowed from **dēvertō** and **revertō**.

I-VERBS OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

225. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in **is**, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth whenever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are:

1. **Capiō**, *to take*; **cupiō**, *to desire*; **faciō**, *to make*; **odiō**, *to hate*; **fugiō**, *to flee*; **iaciō**, *to throw*; **pariō**, *to bear*; **quatiō**, *to shake*; **rapīō**, *to seize*; **sapiō**, *to be wise*; with their compounds.

2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs **laciō**, *to entice*, and **speciō**,¹ *to look*; **alliciō**, **ēliciō**, **illiciō**, **pelliciō**, etc.; **aspiciō**, **cōnspeciō**, etc.

3. The Deponent Verbs **gradior**, *to go*; **morior**, *to die*; **patior**, *to suffer*; see 222.

226. Stems and Principal Parts of Capiō.

VERB STEM, **cap**; PRESENT STEM, **capi**²

PRINCIPAL PARTS			
capiō	capere	cēpi	captum

227. Active Voice. — Capiō, *I take*.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR				PLURAL	
capiō	capis	capit	capimus	capitis	capiunt

IMPERFECT

capiē-bam	-bās	-bat	capiē-bāmus	-bātis	-bant
------------------	-------------	-------------	--------------------	---------------	--------------

FUTURE

capi-am	-ēs	-et	capi-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
----------------	------------	------------	------------------	--------------	-------------

PERFECT

cēp-I	-isti	-it	cēp-inus	-istis	-ērunt, or -ēre
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PLUPERFECT

cēpe-ram	-rās	-rat	cēpe-rāmus	-rātis	-rant
-----------------	-------------	-------------	-------------------	---------------	--------------

FUTURE PERFECT

cēpe-rō	-rīs	-rit	cepe-rimus	-ritis	-rint
----------------	-------------	-------------	-------------------	---------------	--------------

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

capi-am	-ās	-at	capi-āmus	-ātis	-ant
----------------	------------	------------	------------------	--------------	-------------

IMPERFECT

cape-rem	-rēs	-ret	cape-rēmus	-rētis	-rent
-----------------	-------------	-------------	-------------------	---------------	--------------

PERFECT

cēpe-rim	-rīs	-rit	cēpe-rimus	-ritis	-rint
-----------------	-------------	-------------	-------------------	---------------	--------------

PLUPERFECT

cēpis-sem	-sēs	-set	cepis-sēmus	-sētis	-sent
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¹ **Speciō** occurs, but it is exceedingly rare.

² Remember that **i** becomes **e** when final, and also before **r** from **s**: ***capi**, **cape**; ***capise**, **capere**; see 26, 1 and 2.

SINGULAR		IMPERATIVE	PLURAL	
Pres.	cape		capite	
Fut.	capitō		capitōte	
	capitō		capiantō	
INFINITIVE			PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	capere		Pres.	capēns
Perf.	cēpisse			
Fut.	captūrum esse		Fut.	captūrus
GERUND			SUPINE	
Gen.	capendi			
Dat.	capiendō			
Acc.	capiendum		Acc.	captum
Abl.	capiendō		Abl.	captū

228. Passive Voice. — *Capior, I am taken.*

INDICATIVE MOOD					
PRESENT TENSE					
SINGULAR				PLURAL	
capior	caperis	capitur	capimur	capimini	capiuntur
IMPERFECT					
capie-bar	-bāris	-bātur	capie-bāmur	-bāmini	-bantur
FUTURE					
capi-ar	-ēris	-ētur	capi-ēmur	-ēmini	-entur
PERFECT					
captus sum	es	est	capti sumus	estis	sunt
PLUPERFECT					
captus eram	erās	erat	capti erāmus	erātis	erant
FUTURE PERFECT					
captus erō	eris	erit	capti erimus	eritis	erunt
SUBJUNCTIVE					
PRESENT					
capi-ar	-āris	-ātur	capi-āmur	-āmini	-antur
IMPERFECT					
cape-rer	-rēris	-rētur	cape-rēmur	-rēmini	-rentur

PERFECT					
captus sim	sis	sit	capti simus	istis	sint
PLUPERFECT					
captus essem	essēs	esset	capti essemus	essētis	essent
IMPERATIVE					
Pres. capere				capimini	
Fut. capitor					
capitor				capiuntor	
INFINITIVE			PARTICIPLE		
Pres. capi					
Perf. captum esse				Perf. captus	
Fut. captum iri				Fut. capiendus	

229. Deponent verbs in *tor* of the Third Conjugation, like other deponent verbs, have in the active voice the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine, but lack the Future Infinitive of the passive form. They are otherwise inflected precisely like the passive of *capior*:

patior	pati	passus sum	to suffer
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VERBAL INFLECTIONS

230. The principal parts are regularly formed in the four conjugations with the following endings:

CONJ. I.	ō	āre	āvī	ātum	
	amō	amāre	amāvī	amātum	to love
II.	In a few verbs:	eō	ēre	ēvī	ētum
		dēlēō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum to destroy
	In most verbs:	eō	ēre	uī	itum
	moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum	to advise
III.	In consonant stems:	ō	ere	sī	tum
		carpō	carpere	carpsī	captum to pluck
	In u-stems:	uō	uere	uī	ūtum
	acuō	acuere	acul	acūtum	to sharpen
IV.	iō	ire	ivī	itum	
	audiō	audire	audivī	auditum	to hear

NOTE. — For a full treatment of the formation of the principal parts of verbs, see Classification of Verbs, 257-289.

231. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines or Perfect Participles¹ generally change the stem vowel in forming the principal parts.²

1. When the simple verb has the stem vowel *e*, which becomes *ē*, both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally changes *e* to *i*, but retains *ē*:

regō	regere	rēxi	rēctum	to rule
di-rigō	di-rigere	di-rēxi	di-rēctum	to direct

2. When the simple verb has the stem vowel *e*, which remains unchanged both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally retains *e* in the Participle, but changes it to *i* in the other parts:

teneō	tenēre	tenui	tentum	to hold
dē-tineō	dē-tinēre	dē-tinui	dē-tentum	to detain

3. When the simple verb has the stem vowel *a*, which becomes *ē* in the Perfect, the compound generally retains *ē* in the Perfect, but changes *a* to *e* in the Participle and to *i* in the other parts:

capiō	capere	cēpi	captum	to take
ac-cipiō	ac-cipere	ac-cēpi	ac-ceptum	to accept

4. When the simple verb has the stem vowel *a* throughout, the compounds generally change *a* to *e* in the Participle and to *i* in the other parts:

rapīō	rapere	rapui	raptum	to seize
di-rīpiō	di-rīpere	di-rīpui	di-reptum	to tear asunder

NOTE. — For Reduplication in compounds, see 251, 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

232. All the forms of the regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems.

233. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises:

1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative — Active and Passive.
2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive — Active and Passive.
3. The Imperative — Active and Passive.
4. The Present Infinitive — Active and Passive.
5. The Present Participle.
6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

¹ The term Participle here used of one of the principal parts of the verb designates the form in *tum* or *sum*, which is the basis of the Participial or Supine System; see 235.

² This change took place at a very early date, in accordance with phonetic laws, under the influence of the initial accent of that period.

NOTE. — These parts are all formed from the Present stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending *re*: *amāre*, present stem *amā*; *monēre*, *monē*; *regere*, *rege*, with ablaut form *rego*; *audire*, *audi*.

234. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the active voice:

1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
3. The Perfect Infinitive.

NOTE. — These parts are all formed from the Perfect stem, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping *i*: *amāvi*, perfect stem *amāv*; *monui*, *monu*.

235. The Participial System, with the neuter of the Perfect Participle or the Supine as its basis, comprises:

1. The Future Active and the Perfect Passive Participle, the former of which with *esse* forms the Future Active Infinitive, while the latter with the proper parts of the auxiliary *sum* forms in the passive those tenses which in the active belong to the Perfect system. These Participles are both formed from the verb stem, the Future by adding *tūrus*, which sometimes becomes *sūrus*, and the Perfect by adding *tus*, which sometimes becomes *sus*.

2. The Supine in *tum* and *tū*, the former of which with *iri* forms the Future Infinitive Passive. The Supine is formed from the verb stem by adding the endings *tum*, *tū*, which sometimes become *sum*, *sū*.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

236. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the verb *sum*, is used of actions which are imminent, or about to take place:

Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	amātūrus sum	<i>I am about to love</i>
Imp.	amātūrus eram	<i>I was about to love</i>
Fut.	amātūrus erō	<i>I shall be about to love</i>
Perf.	amātūrus fui	<i>I have been, or was, about to love</i>
Plup.	amātūrus fueram	<i>I had been about to love</i>
F. P.	amātūrus fuerō	<i>I shall have been about to love</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	amātūrus sim	<i>May I be about to love</i>
Imp.	amātūrus essem	<i>I should be about to love</i>
Perf.	amātūrus fuerim	<i>I may have been about to love</i>
Plup.	amātūrus fuissen	<i>I should have been about to love</i>

INFINITIVE

Pres.	amātūrum esse	<i>to be about to love</i>
Perf.	amātūrum fuisse	<i>to have been about to love</i>

237. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with *sum*, is used of actions which are necessary, or which ought to take place:

Amandus sum, I am to be loved, deserve to be, or ought to be loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	amandus sum	<i>I am to be loved, I must be loved</i>
Imp.	amandus eram	<i>I was to be loved, deserved to be, etc.</i>
Fut.	amandus erō	<i>I shall deserve to be loved</i>
Perf.	amandus fui	<i>I have deserved to be loved</i>
Plup.	amandus fueram	<i>I had deserved to be loved</i>
F. P.	amandus fuerō	<i>I shall have deserved to be loved</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	amandus sim	<i>May I deserve to be loved</i>
Imp.	amandus essem	<i>I should deserve to be loved</i>
Perf.	amandus fuerim	<i>I may have deserved to be loved</i>
Plup.	amandus fuissen	<i>I should have deserved to be loved</i>

INFINITIVE

Pres.	amandum esse	<i>to deserve to be loved</i>
Perf.	amandum fuisse	<i>to have deserved to be loved</i>

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION

238. Perfects in *āvi* and *ēvi* and the tenses derived from them sometimes drop *ve* or *vi* before *r* or *s*¹:

amāvisti	amāsti	dēlēvistī	dēlēsti
amāvisse	amāsse	dēlēvisse	dēlēsse
amāverim	amārim	dēlēverim	dēlērim
amāverō	amārō	dēlēverō	dēlērō

¹ According to another theory they drop *v*, and then the following vowel, *e* or *i*, disappears by contraction with the preceding vowel, *ā* or *ē*.

1. Perfects in **ovi** from **nōsoō**, and from the compounds of **moveō**, together with the tenses derived from them, may also drop **ve**, or **vi**, before **r** or **s**¹:

nōvistī	nōstī	nōverīs	nōrīs
commovisse	commōsse		

2. Perfects in **ivi** and the tenses derived from them sometimes drop **vi** before **s**, and they may drop **v** in any situation except before the ending **ēre**:

audivistī	audistī	audivī	audiī
audivisse	audisse	audivērunt	audiērunt

3. Certain short forms from Perfects in **si** and **xi**, common in poetry, are probably an independent formation of an early date:

scripsitī = scripsistī	dixitī = dixistī
scripsitis = scripsistis	dixem = dixissem

239. The ending **ēre** for **ērunt** in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Caesar and Cicero. In poetry **erunt** occurs.

240. **Re** for **ris** in the ending of the second person of the passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.

241. **Dic**, **dūc**, **fac**, and **fer**, for **dice**, **dūce**, **face**, and **fere**, are the Imperatives of **dicō**, **dūcō**, **faciō**, and **ferō**, *to say, lead, make, and bear*.

1. **Dice**, **dūce**, and **face** occur in poetry.

2. Compounds generally follow the usage of the simple verbs, but the compounds of **faciō** with prepositions retain the final **e**: **cōn-ficiō**, **cōn-fice**.

3. **Sciō**, *I know*, lacks the present imperative, and uses the future in its stead.

242. Future and Perfect Infinitives often omit the auxiliary, **esse**: **amātūrum**, for **amātūrum esse**; **amātum**, for **amātum esse**.

243. **Undus** and **undī**, for **endus** and **endī**, occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, especially after **i**: **faciundus**, from **faciō**, *to make*; **dicundus**, from **dicō**, *to say*.

244. **Ancient and Rare Forms**. — Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus, forms in —

¹ See 238, footnote.

1. **ŕbam** for **ŕbham**, in the Imperfect Indicative of the Fourth Conjugation **ŕŕbham** for **ŕŕbham**. See Imperfect of **eō**, *to go*, 297.
2. **ŕbō**, **ŕbor**, for **ŕam**, **ŕar**, in the Future of the Fourth Conjugation: **vŕbō** for **ŕerviam**; **opperŕbor** for **opperiar**. See Future of **eō**, 297.
3. **im** for **am** or **em**, in the Present Subjunctive: **edim**, **edīs**, etc., for **edam**, **edās**, etc.; **duim** (from **duō**, for **dō**) for **dom**. In **ŕim**, **velim**, **nōlim**, **mālim** (295), **im** is the common ending.
4. **ŕssō**, **ŕssō**, and **sō**, in the Future Perfect, and **ŕssim**, **ŕssim**, and **ŕim**, in the Perfect Subjunctive of the First, Second, and Third Conjugations: **faxō** (**facso**) = **fēcerō**; **faxim** = **fēcerim**; **ausim** = **ausus sim** (from **audeo**). Rare examples are: **levāssō** = **levāverō**; **prohibēssō** = **prohibuerō**; **capēō** = **cēperō**.
5. **minō** for **tor**, in the Future Imperative, Passive, and Deponent: **arbitrāminō** for **arbitrātor**.
6. **ier** for **i**, in the Present Passive Infinitive: **amārier** for **amāri**; **vidērier** for **vidēri**.

FORMATION OF STEMS

245. The Verb Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation, consists of that part of the verb which is common to all the forms of both voices. The Special Stems are either identical with this stem or formed from it.

I. Present Stem

246. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping **re**, is generally the same as the verb stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugation, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, **amā**, **dēlē**, and **audī** are both Present stems and verb stems.

247. The Present stem, when not the same as the verb stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:

1. By adding the Thematic Vowel, originally **e**, **o**, usually written **°/o**. In Latin this vowel generally takes the form **i**, **u**¹:

regō, Stem, **reg**; Present Stem, **reg °/o**; **rege** becomes **regi** in **regi-s**, and **rego** becomes **regu** in **regu-nt**.

2. By adding **n** with the thematic vowel:

cernō ,	Stem, cer ;	Present Stem, cer-n °/o ;	<i>to perceive</i>
temnō ,	" tem ;	" " tem-n °/o ;	<i>to despise</i>

¹ For this phonetic change, see 25, 1, 27, 1.

3. By inserting **n** and adding the thematic vowel:

frangō, Stem, **frag**; Present Stem, **frang^e/o**; to break

4. By adding **t** with the thematic vowel:

plectō, Stem, **plec**; Present Stem, **plec-t^e/o**; to braid

5. By adding **sc** with the thematic vowel:

quiescō, Stem, **quiē**; Present Stem, **quiē-sc^e/o**; to rest

6. By prefixing to the stem its initial consonant with **i**, and adding the thematic vowel:

gign-ere; Stem, **gen**; Present Stem, **gī-gn^e/o¹**; to beget

7. By adding **ā, ē, ī**, or **i** to the stem²:

dom-āre	Stem, dom	Present Stem, dom-ā	to tame
vid-ēre	“ vid	“ “ vid-ē	to see
aper-īre	“ aper	“ “ aper-ī	to uncover
cap-ere	“ cap	“ “ cap-i	to take

II. Perfect Stem

248. Vowel stems, except those in **u**, generally form the Perfect stem by adding **v**³:

amā-re	amā-vi	Stem, amā	Perfect Stem, amāv	to love
dēlē-re	dēlē-vi	“ dēlē	“ “ dēlēv	to destroy
audī-re	audī-vi	“ audī	“ “ audīv	to hear

1. In verbs in **uō**, the Perfect stem is the same as the verb stem:

acu-ere	acu-i	Stem, acu	Perfect Stem, acu	to sharpen
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249. Many stems in **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, and a few others, together with most of the verbs of the second conjugation, form the Perfect stem by adding **u**³:

al-ere	al-ui	Stem, al	Perfect Stem, alu	to nourish
frem-ere	frem-ui	“ frem	“ “ fremu	to rage
ten-ēre	ten-ui	“ ten	“ “ tenu	to hold
ser-ere	ser-ui	“ ser	“ “ seru	to connect
doc-ere	doc-ui	“ doc	“ “ docu	to teach

¹ In the reduplicated forms **gigne**, **gigno**, the root **gen** takes the weak form **gn**.

² In the first person of the Present Indicative active, the suffixes are **āo**, **ēo**, **io**, and **lo**.

³ Perfects in **vi** and **ui** were not inherited, but are new formations. Perfects in **vi** are of uncertain origin, but they may have been formed on the analogy of such Perfects as **fāvi**, **lāvi**, **fōvi**, **mōvi**, **vōvi**, **lāvi**, in which **v** belongs to the verb stem. The ending **ui** is probably only a modification of **vi**.

250. Most mute stems form the Perfect stem by adding **s**¹:

carp-ere	carp-si	Stem, carp	Perfect Stem, carps	to <i>pluck</i>
reg-ere	rēxi = *rēg-si	" reg	" " rēx = *rēgs	to <i>rule</i>

251. Reduplication. — A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by reduplication, which consists in prefixing the initial consonant of the stem with the following vowel or with **e**:

tend-ere	te-tend-i	Stem, tend	Perfect Stem, te-tend	to <i>stretch</i>
pōsc-ere	po-pōsc-i	" pōsc	" " po-pōsc	to <i>demand</i>
curr-ere	cu-curr-i	" curr	" " cu-curr	to <i>run</i>
can-ere	ce-cin-i	" can	" " ce-cin	to <i>sing</i>

1. The vowel of the reduplication was originally **e**. In Latin it is assimilated to the vowel of the stem when that vowel is **i**, **o**, or **u**, as in **didic-i**, **po-pōsc-i**, **cu-curr-i**, but it is retained as **e** in all other situations.

2. After the reduplication, **a** of the stem is weakened to **i** in open syllables, as in **can-ere**, **ce-ci-ni**, but in closed syllables it is weakened to **e**, as in **fall-ere**, **fe-fel-li**; see 24, 1 and 2. **Ae** is weakened to **i**, as in **caed-ere**, **ce-ci-di**; see 32, 2.

3. In verbs beginning with **sp** or **st**, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops **s**: **spond-ēre**, **spo-pond-i**, to *promise*; **stā-re**, **ste-t-i**, to *stand*.

4. Compounds generally drop the reduplication, but the compounds of **dare**,² to *give*; **discere**, to *learn*; **pōscere**, to *demand*, and **stāre**, to *stand*, retain it: **te-tendī**, **contendī**; but **de-di**, **circum-de-di**; **ste-ti**, **circum-ste-ti**.

252. A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by lengthening the stem vowel:

em-ere	ēm-i	Stem, em	Perfect Stem, ēm	to <i>buy</i>
ag-ere	āg-i ³	" ag	" " āg	to <i>drive</i>
leg-ere	lēg-i	" leg	" " lēg	to <i>read</i>
vid-ere	vid-i	" vid	" " vid	to <i>see</i>

1. A few verbs retain the stem unchanged:

vert-ere	vert-i	Stem, vert	Perfect Stem, vert	to <i>turn</i>
vis-ere	vis-i	" vis	" " vis	to <i>visit</i>

¹ The Perfect in **si** is in its origin an inherited **s**-Aorist which has become one of the regular forms of the Latin Perfect. It corresponds to the **s**-Aorist of the Greek, Sanskrit, and other kindred tongues.

² The compounds of **dare** which are of the Third Conjugation change **e** into **i** in the reduplication: **ad-de-re**, **ad-di-di**, for ***ad-de-di**, to *add*.

³ Observe that **a** in **ag-ere** and **i** in its compounds, as in **ab-ag-ere**, **ab-āg-i**, are not only lengthened, but also changed to **ē**.

PARTICIPIAL SYSTEM

253. The Participial System has no common stem, but it is represented in the Principal Parts of the verb by the neuter of the Perfect Participle, or by the Supine, each of which is formed by adding **tum** to the verb stem:

amā-re	amā-tum	<i>to love</i>
doc-ēre	doc-tum	<i>to teach</i>
can-ere	can-tum	<i>to sing</i>
audi-re	audi-tum	<i>to hear</i>

1. In stems in **d** and **t**, the union of **d-t** and of **t-t** in the Supine and Participle produces, according to phonetic law, **ss**, regularly reduced to **s** after long syllables:

laed-ere	*laed-tum	lae-sum	<i>to hurt</i>
vert-ere	*vert-tum	ver-sum	<i>to turn</i>

2. A few stems, chiefly those in **l** and **r**, following the analogy of stems in **d** and **t**, add **-sum** in forming the Supine or Participle:

fal-lerē¹	fal-sum	<i>to deceive</i>
curr-ere	cur-sum²	<i>to run</i>

VERBAL ENDINGS

254. The Endings which are appended to the verb stem in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb distinguish the different Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons.

I. Personal Endings

255. The personal endings, some of which appear to have been formed from ancient pronominal stems, distinguish Voice, Number, and Person. They are in general as follows:

PERSON	ACTIVE	PASSIVE	MEANING
Sing. First	m, ō	r, or	<i>I</i>
Second	s	ris	<i>thou, you</i>
Third	t	tur	<i>he, she, it</i>
Plur. First	mus	mur	<i>we</i>
Second	tis	mini³	<i>you</i>
Third	nt	ntur	<i>they</i>

¹ The second **l** for **n** belongs to the present stem, not to the verb stem.

² The second **r** for **s** disappears before **s**.

³ **Mini** was not originally a personal ending, but the plural of a Passive Parti-

1. These are the regular personal endings in the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods, except the Perfect Indicative active, which has special endings, as seen in *fuī*:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person	<i>fu-ī</i>	<i>fu-i-mus</i> ¹
Second "	<i>fu-is-tī</i>	<i>fu-is-tis</i>
Third "	<i>fu-i-t</i>	<i>fu-ēr-unt</i> or <i>fu-ēr-e</i>

2. The Imperative Mood has the following personal endings:

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres. Second Person	—	<i>te</i>	<i>re</i>	<i>mini</i> ²
Fut. " "	<i>tō</i>	<i>tōte</i>	<i>tor</i>	—
Third "	<i>tō</i>	<i>lētō</i>	<i>tor</i>	<i>ntor</i>

II. Mood and Tense Signs

256. The Mood and Tense Signs include that part of the several verbal forms which stands between the verb stem and the personal endings: *s-i-mus*, *s-i-tis*; *amā-bā-mus*, *amā-bi-tis*, *audi-vi-mus*, *audi-verā-mus*.

1. The Subjunctive has a long vowel before the personal endings, as in *s-i-mus*, *s-i-tis*, *mone-ā-mus*, but this vowel is shortened before final *m* and *t*, and in the Perfect generally before *mus* and *tis*: *audi-am*, *audi-at*, *amāver-imus*, *amāver-itis*.

2. The Indicative has no special mood sign, and the Imperative is distinguished by the personal endings.

3. The Future in the Third and Fourth Conjugations is in origin a Subjunctive, but it has assumed the force of the Future Indicative.

ciple, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (*μενοι*). *Amāmini*, originally *amāmini estis*, means *you are loved*, as *amāti estis* means *you have been loved*.

¹ These peculiar endings have been produced by the union of two tenses originally distinct, the Perfect and the *s*-Aorist, both of which are preserved in the Greek and the Sanskrit. *Fui-t* and *fui-mus* are regular Perfect formations with the ordinary personal endings of the Latin verb, but *fu-ī* has the ending *ī* of uncertain origin, though it may have been derived from the Personal ending of the Middle Voice. *Fu-is-tī*, *fu-is-tis*, and *fu-ēr-unt* are *s*-Aorist formations, but *fu-is-tī* preserves in *tī* a modified form of the original personal ending of the Perfect.

² The ending *mini* is probably in origin an old Infinitive which has assumed the force of an Imperative, like the corresponding form in Homeric Greek. If so, it is to be distinguished from the same form used in other moods.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

First Conjugation

257. Principal Parts in *ō, āre, āvī, ātum*:

<i>amō</i>	<i>amāre</i>	<i>amāvī</i>	<i>amātum</i>	<i>to love</i>
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So all regular verbs of this conjugation.

1. Deponent verbs of this conjugation form their principal parts as follows:

<i>hortor</i>	<i>hortāri</i>	<i>hortātus sum</i>	<i>to exhort</i>
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2. The following verbs have both regular and irregular forms:

<i>ap-plic-ō</i> ¹	<i>-āre</i>	<i>applicāvī</i>	<i>applicuī</i>	<i>applicātum</i>	<i>applicitum</i>	<i>to join</i>
<i>ē-nec-ō</i> ²	<i>-āre</i>	<i>ēnecāvī</i>	<i>ēnecūī</i>	<i>ēnecātum</i>	<i>ēnectum</i>	<i>to kill</i> ✓
<i>fric-ō</i>	<i>-āre</i>	—	<i>fricuī</i>	<i>fricātum</i>	<i>frictum</i>	<i>to rub</i>
<i>pōt-ō</i>	<i>-āre</i>	<i>pōtāvī</i>	—	<i>pōtātum</i>	<i>pōtum</i>	<i>to drink</i>

258. Principal Parts in *ō, āre, uī, itum, tum*:

	<i>domō</i>	<i>domāre</i>	<i>domuī</i>	<i>domitum</i>	<i>to tame</i>
So	<i>cubō, to recline</i>		<i>in-crepō, to rebuke</i>		<i>vetō, to forbid</i>
	<i>secō</i>	<i>secāre</i>	<i>secuī</i>	<i>sectum</i>	<i>to cut</i>

1. *Micō*,³ *to glitter*, and *tonō*, *to thunder*, lack the Participial System.
2. *Sonō*,³ *sonāre, sonuī, to sound*, has the Future Participle *sonātūrus*.

259. Principal Parts in *ō, āre, ī, tum*:

PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION OR LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

✓	<i>dō</i>	<i>dare</i>	<i>dedī</i>	<i>datum</i>	<i>to give</i>
✓	<i>stō</i>	<i>stāre</i>	<i>stetī</i>	<i>statum</i>	<i>to stand</i>
	<i>iuvō</i>	<i>iuvāre</i>	<i>iūvī</i>	<i>iūtum</i> ⁴	<i>to assist</i>
	<i>lavō</i>	<i>lavāre</i>	<i>lāvī</i>	<i>lavātum, lautum</i>	<i>to wash</i>

1. In the inflection of *dō, dare*, the characteristic *a* is short⁵ except in the forms *dās, dā, dāns*.

¹ So *ex-plicō* and *im-plicō*, but denominatives in *plicō* are regular, as *duplicō, to double*.

² The simple *necō* is regular.

³ But *di-micō* is regular, and *re-sonō* has Perfect *re-sonāvī*.

⁴ *Iuvō* has Fut. Part. *iuvātūrus*; in compounds *iūtūrus*.

⁵ This short vowel is explained by the fact that *dō, dare*, is formed directly from the root *dō*, weak form *da*, without the suffix which gave rise to *ā* in other verbs of this conjugation; *dās, dā, dāns* follow the analogy of other verbs in *ō, āre*.

2. Dissyllabic compounds of **dō** are of the Third Conjugation: **ad-dō**, **addere**, **addidī**, **additum**, *to add*.

3. Compounds of **stō**, **stāre**, generally lack the participial system, and dissyllabic compounds have **stīti** in the Perfect. **Distō** and **extō** have only the Present System.

Second Conjugation

260. Principal Parts in **eō**, **ēre**, **ēvi**, **ētum**:

	dēlēō	dēlēre	dēlēvi	dclētum	<i>to destroy</i>
So	com-pleō , <i>to fill</i> ¹		fleō , <i>to weep</i>		neō , <i>to spin</i>
Note	aboleō	abolēre	abolēvi	abolitum	<i>to destroy</i>
and	ciēō	ciēre	civī	citum ²	<i>to arouse</i>

261. Principal Parts in **eō**, **ēre**, **ui**, **itum**:

	moneō	monēre	monui	monitum	<i>to advise</i>
	noceō	nocēre	nocui	nocitum	<i>to hurt</i>
	habeō	habēre	habui	habitum	<i>to have</i>
So	ad-hibeō , <i>to apply</i>		dē-beō , ³ <i>to owe</i>		prae-beō , ³ <i>to offer</i>
	cō-erceō , ⁴ <i>to check</i>		ex-erceō , ⁴ <i>to train</i>		mereō , <i>to earn</i>
	placeō , <i>to please</i>		taceō , <i>to be silent</i>		terreō , <i>to terrify</i>
Note	caleō	calēre	calui	calitūrus	<i>to be warm</i>
So	careō , <i>to be without</i>		doleō , <i>to grieve</i>		iaceō , <i>to lie</i>
	pareō , <i>to obey</i>		valeō , <i>to be strong</i>		—

1. Many verbs lack the Participial System:

	arceō	arcēre	arui	—	<i>to keep off</i>
	āreō	ārēre	āruī	—	<i>to be dry</i>
So	egeō , <i>to need</i>		ēmineō , <i>to stand forth</i>		flōreō , <i>to bloom</i>
	horreō , <i>to shudder</i>		lateō , <i>to be hid</i>		niteō , <i>to shine</i>
	oleō , <i>to smell</i>		palleō , <i>to be pale</i>		pateō , <i>to be open</i>
	sileō , <i>to be silent</i>		splendeō , <i>to shine</i>		studeō , <i>to desire</i>
	stupeō , <i>to be amazed</i>		timeō , <i>to fear</i>		torpeō , <i>to be dull</i>
	vigeō , <i>to thrive</i>		vireō , <i>to be green</i>		

2. Some verbs, derived chiefly from adjectives, have only the Present System in general use:

aveō , <i>to desire</i>	frigeō , <i>to be cold</i>	hebeō , <i>to be dull</i>
immineō , <i>to threaten</i>	maereō , <i>to mourn</i>	polleō , <i>to be strong</i>

¹ So other compounds of the obsolete **pleō**: **ex-pleō**, **im pleō**, etc.

² Compounds are of the Fourth Conjugation.

³ **Dē-beō** is from **dē-habeō**, **prae-beō** from **prae-habeō**.

⁴ Compounds of **arceō**; see 1 below.

262. Principal Parts in *eō, ēre, uī, tum, sum* :

doceō	docēre	docui	doctum	<i>to teach</i>
miscēō	miscēre	miscui	mixtum	<i>to mix</i>
torreō	torrēre	torrui	tostum	<i>to roast</i>
cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsui	cēnsūm	<i>to assess</i>
Note teneō	tenēre	tenui	—	<i>to hold</i>

So *abs-tineō, con-tineō, per-tineō, and sus-tineō*, but note

dētineō	dētīnere	dētīnui	dētentum	<i>to detain</i>
So dis-tineō, <i>to keep apart</i>	ob-tineō, <i>to occupy</i>	re-tineō, <i>to retain</i>		

263. Principal Parts in *eō, ēre, sī, tum, or sum* :

augeō	augēre	auxi ¹	auctum	<i>to increase</i>
indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsi	indultum	<i>to indulge</i>
torqueō	torquēre	torsi	tortum	<i>to twist</i>
ardeō	ardēre	arsī	arsum	<i>to burn</i>
haereō	haerēre	haesi ²	haesum	<i>to stick</i>
iubeō	iubēre	iussi	iussum	<i>to order</i>
maneō	manēre	mānsi	mānsūm	<i>to remain</i>
mulceō	mulcēre	mulsi	mulsum	<i>to soothe</i>
mulgeō	mulgēre	mulsi	mulsum	<i>to milk</i>
rideō	ridēre	rīsī	rīsum	<i>to laugh</i>
suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsūm	<i>to advise</i>
tergeō	tergēre	tersi	tersum	<i>to wipe off</i>
algeō	algēre	alsi	—	<i>to be cold</i>
fulgeō	fulgēre	fulsi	—	<i>to shine</i>
urgeō	urgēre	ursi	—	<i>to press</i>
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxi	—	<i>to shine</i>
lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxi	—	<i>to mourn</i>

Principal Parts in *eō, ēre, ī, tum* :

PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautum	<i>to take heed</i>
faveō	favēre	fāvi	fautum	<i>to favor</i>
foveō	fovēre	fōvi	fōtum	<i>to cherish</i>
So moveō, <i>to move</i>		voveō, <i>to vote</i>		
Note paveō	pavēre	pāvi	—	<i>to be terrified</i>

¹ Observe that *auxi* is from *aug-sī.

² The stem of *haereō* is *haes*. The Present adds *ē* and changes *s* to *r* between vowels. In *haesi*, *s* standing for *ss* is not changed.

265. Principal Parts in eō, ēre, ī, sum:**1. PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION**

mordeō	mordēre	mo-mordī	morsum	<i>to bite</i>
spondeō	spondēre	spo-pondī ¹	spōnsum	<i>to promise</i>
tondeō	tondēre	to-tondī	tōnsum	<i>to shear</i>
pendeō	pendēre	pe-pondī	—	<i>to hang</i>

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessum ²	<i>to sit</i>
videō	vidēre	vidī	visum	<i>to see</i>

3. PERFECT WITH UNCHANGED STEM

prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsum ³	<i>to breakfast</i>
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī	—	<i>to creak</i>

266. DEPONENT VERBS

	liceor	licēri	licitus sum	<i>to bid</i>
	pol-liceor	pollicēri	pollicitus sum	<i>to promise</i>
So	mereor, <i>to deserve</i> ;		misereor, <i>to pity</i> ;	vereor, <i>to fear</i>
	reor	rērī	ratus sum	<i>to think</i>
	fateor	fatērī	fassus sum ⁴	<i>to confess</i>
	medeor	medērī	—	<i>to heal</i>
	tueor	tuērī	—	<i>to protect</i>

267. SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS,—DEPONENT IN THE PERFECT

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	<i>to dare</i>
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum	<i>to rejoice</i>
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	<i>to be accustomed</i>

Third Conjugation**STEM IN A CONSONANT****268. Principal Parts in ō, ere, sī, tum:⁵**

	carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum	<i>to pluck</i>
So	dē-cerpō, <i>to pluck off</i>		ex-cerpō, <i>to choose out</i>	sculpō, <i>to carve</i>	

¹ For reduplication in compounds, see 251, 4; re-spondeō, re-spondēre, re-spondī, re-spōnsum, *to reply*.

² So circum-sedeō and super-sedeō. Other compounds thus: ob-sideō, ob-sidēre, ob-sēdī, ob-sessum, but some compounds lack the Participial System.

³ See 224, 1.

⁴ But cōn-fiteor, cōn-fitērī, cōn-fessus sum; so pro-fiteor.

⁵ For phonetic changes, see 51-56.

nūbō	nūbere	nūpsi	nūptum	<i>to marry</i>
scribō	scribere	scripsi	scriptum	<i>to write</i>
gerō	gerere	gessi	gestum ¹	<i>to carry</i>
ūrō	ūrere	ussi	ustum ¹	<i>to burn</i>
dicō	dicere	dixi ²	dictum	<i>to say</i>
dūco	dūcere	dūxi	ductum	<i>to lead</i>
af-fligō	affligere	affixi	afflictum	<i>to strike down</i>
cīngō	cingere	cīnxi ²	cīnctum	<i>to gird</i>
fīngō	ingere	fīnxi	fictum	<i>to mould</i>
pīngō	pingere	pīnxi	pictum	<i>to paint</i>
iūngō	iungere	iūnxi	iūnctum	<i>to join</i>
dī-ligō	diligere	dīlēxi	dīlēctum ³	<i>to love</i>
neg-legō	neglegere	neglēxi	neglēctum	<i>to neglect</i>
regō	regere	rēxi	rēctum	<i>to rule</i>
tegō	tegere	tēxi	tēctum	<i>to cover</i>
coquō	coquere	coxi	coctum	<i>to cook</i>
ex-stinguō	extinguere	extīnxi	extinctum ⁴	<i>to extinguish</i>
trahō	trahere	trāxi	trāctum	<i>to draw</i>
vehō	vehere	vexi	vectum	<i>to carry</i>
vivō	vivere	vixi	victum	<i>to live</i>
cōmō	cōmere	cōmpsi ⁵	cōmptum ⁵	<i>to arrange</i>
So dēmō, <i>to take away</i>		prōmō, <i>to bring forth</i>	sūmō, <i>to take</i>	
Note con-temnō	contemnere	contempsi	contemptum	<i>to despise</i>

269. Principal Parts in ō, ere, sī, sum :

cēdō	cēdere	cessi	cessum	<i>to give place</i>
claudō	claudere	clausi	clausum	<i>to close</i>
So con-clūdō, <i>to enclose</i>		ex-clūdō, <i>to exclude</i>		ē-vādō, ⁶ <i>to go out</i>
plaudō, <i>to applaud</i>		ex-plūdō, <i>to hoot off</i>		dividō, <i>to divide</i>
laedō, ⁷ <i>to hurt</i>		lūdō, <i>to play</i>		rādō, <i>to shave</i>
rōdō, <i>to gnaw</i>		trūdō, <i>to thrust</i>		
flectō	flectere	flexi	flexum	<i>to bend</i>
So pectō, <i>to comb</i>		plectō, <i>to braid</i>		
mittō	mittere	miſi	missum	<i>to send</i>
premō	premere	pressi	pressum	<i>to press</i>

¹ The stem of *gerō* is *ges*, and that of *ūrō* is *ūs*.

² Observe that in these and the following Perfects in *xī*, the tense ending is *sī*, and that *s* of this ending unites with the final mute of the stem and forms *x*: *dic-sī, dixī; *cing-sī, cīnxi; see 51.

³ So *dē-ligō* and *ē-ligō*; *intel-legō* like *neg-legō*. For *legō*, see 270, 2.

⁴ So other compounds of *stinguō*, which is rare and defective.

⁵ A euphonic *p* is here developed between *m* and *s*, and between *m* and *t* (52, 5).

⁶ So other compounds of *vādō*, which is rare and defective.

⁷ Compounds of *laedō* have *l* for *ae*, as in *il-lidō*.

figō	figere	fixi	fixum	<i>to fasten</i>
mergō	mergere	mersi	mersum	<i>to sink</i>
spargō	spargere	sparsi	sparsum	<i>to scatter</i>

270. Principal Parts in **ō**, ere, i. trans :

1. PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION

ab-dō	abderc	ab-li-dī	abditum ¹	<i>to put away</i>
So ad-dō, <i>to add to</i>		crē-dō, <i>to believe</i>		vēn-dō, <i>to sell</i>
pangō	pangere	{ pe-pigī pēgi	{ pāctum pāctum	{ <i>to make fast</i>
im-pingō	impingere	impēgi	impāctum	<i>to hurl against</i>
pungō	pungere	pu-pugī	punctum	<i>to prick</i>
tangō	tangere	te-tigī	tāctum	<i>to touch</i>
tendō	tendere	te-tendi ²	tentum	<i>to stretch</i>
sistō	sistere	sti-ti	statum	<i>to place</i>
cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	cōstiti	—	<i>to take a stand</i>
bibō	bibere	bi-bi ³	—	<i>to drink</i>
canō	canere	ce-cini ⁴	—	<i>to sing</i>
discō	discere	di-dici ⁵	—	<i>to learn</i>
Note tollō	tollere	sus-tuli ⁶	sub-lātum	<i>to raise</i>

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

agō	agere	ēgi	āctum	<i>to drive</i>
per-agō	peragere	perēgi	perāctum ⁷	<i>to finish</i>
ab-igō	abigere	abēgi	abāctum	<i>to drive away</i>
cōgō	cōgere	coēgi	coāctum	<i>to collect</i>
emō	emere	ēmī	ēm-p-tum ⁸	<i>to buy</i>
ad-imō	adimere	adēmī	adēptum	<i>to take away</i>
frangō	frangere	frēgi	frāctum	<i>to break</i>
per-fringō	perfringere	perfrēgi	perfrāctum	<i>to shatter</i>
icō	icere	icī	ictum	<i>to strike</i>
legō	legere	lēgi	lēctum	<i>to read</i>
per-legō	perlegere	perlēgi	perlēctum	<i>to read through</i>
col-ligō	colligere	collēgi	collēctum	<i>to collect</i>

¹ So all dissyllabic compounds of **dō**; see 259, 2.

² Compounds lose the reduplication: see 251, 4.

³ **Bibō** is in form reduplicated, both in the Present and in the Perfect.

⁴ Most compounds of **canō** have **ui** in the Perfect; see 272, 1.

⁵ Reduplication **di**; stem, originally **ditc**, became **dic**, as seen in **di-dic-i**.

⁶ The Perfect of **tollō** was originally **te-tuli** (251, 4).

⁷ So **circum-agō**: most compounds like **ab-igō**. **Cōgō** is for **co agō**.

⁸ So **co-emō**. For **cōmō**, **dēmō**, **prēmō**, and **sūmō**, see 268; other compounds like **ad-imō**.

For **di-ligō** and **neg-legō**, see 268.

re-linquō	relinquere	reliquī	relictum ¹	<i>to leave</i>
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum	<i>to burst</i>
vincō	vincere	vici	victum	<i>to conquer</i>

3. PERFECT WITH UNCHANGED STEM

solvō	solvere	solvi	solūtum ²	<i>to loose</i>
volvō	volvere	volvi	volūtum ²	<i>to roll</i>

271. Principal Parts in **ō**, **ere**, **i**, **sum**:

1. PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION

cadō	cadere	ce-cidi	cāsum	<i>to fall</i>
in-cidō	incidere	incidi ³	incāsum ⁴	<i>to fall into</i>
caedō	caedere	ce-cidi	caesum	<i>to cut</i>
in-cidō	incidere	incidi ³	incisum	<i>to cut into</i>
pendō	pendere	pe-pendi	pēsum	<i>to weigh</i>
tundō	tundere	tu-tudi	tūsum, tūsum	<i>to beat</i>
con-tundō	contundere	contudi ³	contūsum	<i>to crush</i>
fallō	fallere	fe-felli	falsum	<i>to deceive</i>
pellō	pellere	pe-puli	pulsum	<i>to drive</i>
re-pellō	repellere	reppuli	repulsum	<i>to drive back</i>
currō	currere	cu-curri ⁵	cursum	<i>to run</i>
parcō	parcere	pe-perci	parsum	<i>to spare</i>
pōscō	pōscere	po-pōsci	—	<i>to demand</i>
dē-pōscō	dēpōscere	dē-po-pōsci ⁶	—	<i>to demand</i>

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

edō	edere	ēdi	ēsūm	<i>to eat</i>
fundō	fundere	fūdi	fūsūm	<i>to pour</i>

3. PERFECT WITH UNCHANGED STEM

ac-cendō	accendere	accendi	accēsum ⁷	<i>to kindle</i>
dē-fendō	dēfendere	dēfendi	dēfēsum ⁷	<i>to defend</i>
dē-scendō	dēscendere	dēscendi	dēscēsum ⁷	<i>to descend</i>
ex-cūdō	excūdere	excūdi	excūsum	<i>to forge</i>
findō	findere	fidi	fissum	<i>to split</i>

¹ The simple verb is **linquō**, **linquere**, **liqui**, —, *to leave*.

² Formed from **soluō** and **voluō**, like **statūtum** from **statuō**.

³ Observe that these compounds lose the reduplication.

⁴ Some compounds of **cadō** lack the Participial System.

⁵ **Ex-currō** and **prae-currō** generally retain the reduplication.

⁶ Observe that **dē-pōscō** retains the reduplication: see 251, 4.

⁷ So other compounds of the obsolete **candō**, **fendō**, and of **scandō**.

scindō	scindere	scidi	scissum	<i>to rend</i>
mandō	mandere	mandi	mānsum	<i>to chew</i>
pandō	pandere	pandi	passum	<i>to unfold</i>
pos-sidō	possidere	possēdi	possessum	<i>to seize</i>
pre-hendō ¹	prehendere	prehendi	prehensum	<i>to grasp</i>
vertō	vertere	verti	versum	<i>to turn</i>
ē-verrō	ēverrere	ēverri	ēversum	<i>to sweep out</i>
per-cellō	percellere	perculi ²	perculsum	<i>to beat down</i>
vellō	vellere	velli	vulsum	<i>to pluck</i>
visō	visere	visi	visum	<i>to visit</i>

Here belongs the semi-deponent verb

fidō	fidere	fisus sum	<i>to trust</i>
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272. Principal Parts in ō, ere, uī, itum :

gignō	gignere	genui ³	genitum	<i>to beget</i>
in-cumbō	incumbere	incubui	incubitum ⁴	<i>to lean upon</i>
molō	molere	molui	molitum	<i>to grind</i>
vomō	vomere	vomui	vomitum	<i>to vomit</i>

Note pōnō pōnere posui positum *to place*

1. The following verbs lack the Participial System :

concinō	concinere	concinui	—	<i>to sing together⁵</i>
fremō	fremere	fremui	—	<i>to roar</i>
gemō	gemere	gemui	—	<i>to groan</i>
tremō	tremere	tremui	—	<i>to tremble</i>
strepō	strepere	strepuī	—	<i>to rattle</i>

273. Principal Parts in ō, ere, uī, tum :

alō	alere	alui	altum ⁶	<i>to nourish</i>
colō	colere	colui	cultum	<i>to cultivate</i>
in-colō	incolere	incolui	—	<i>to inhabit</i>
cōn-serō	cōnserere	cōnserui	cōnseritum	<i>to connect</i>
cōnsulō	cōnsulere	cōnsului	cōnsultum	<i>to consult</i>
occulō	occulere	occului	occultum	<i>to hide</i>
texō	texere	texui	textum	<i>to weave</i>

¹ Often written **prēndō, prēndere**, etc.

² Originally the simple verb was doubtless reduplicated.

³ The stem is **gen** in **gen-uī**, but **gn** in **gi-gn-ō**; the Present is reduplicated.

⁴ So other compounds of **cumbō**.

⁵ So most compounds of **canō**; see 270, 1.

⁶ Or **altum**.

1. Note the following :

metō	metere	messui ¹	messum	<i>to reap</i>
nectō	nectere	nexui	nexum	<i>to bind</i>

2. Some verbs from consonant stems have only the Present System in general use.

angō	angere	<i>to trouble</i>	hiscō	hiscere	<i>to gape</i>
claudō	claudere	<i>to be lame</i>	lambō	lambere	<i>to lave</i>
fatiscō	fatiscere	<i>to gape</i>	temnō	temnere	<i>to despise</i>
furō	furere	<i>to rave</i>	vādō	vādere	<i>to go</i>
gliscō	gliscere	<i>to swell</i>	vergō	vergere	<i>to incline</i>

274. A few consonant stems form the Present in **iō** and the other Principal Parts like other consonant stems :

capiō	capere	cēpi	captum	<i>to take</i>
ac-cipiō	accipere	accēpi	acceptum	<i>to accept</i>
cupiō	cupere	cupīvi ²	cupitum ²	<i>to desire</i>
faciō	facere	fēci	factum	<i>to make</i>

Passive irregular : **fiō, fierī, factus sum** ; see 296. So **cale faciō, calefiō, satis-faciō, satis-fiō**.

cōn-ficiō	cōnficere	cōnfēci	cōnfectum	<i>to accomplish</i>
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Passive regular : **cōn-ficior, confici, confectus sum**. So all compounds of **faciō** with prepositions ; other compounds like **cale-faciō**.

fodiō	fodere	fōdi	fossum	<i>to dig</i>
fugiō	fugere	fūgi	fugitūrus	<i>to flee</i>
ef-fugiō	effugere	effūgi	—	<i>to flee away</i>
iaciō	iacere	iēci	iactum	<i>to throw</i>
ab-iaciō ³	abicere ³	abiēci	abiectum	<i>to throw away</i>
pariō	parere	peperi	partum	<i>to bring forth</i>
quatiō	quatere	—	quassum	<i>to shake</i>
con-cutiō	concutere	concussi	concussum	<i>to shake</i>
rapīō	rapere	rapui	raptum	<i>to seize</i>
sapiō	sapere	sapīvi ²	—	<i>to savor of</i>

1. Here belong the compounds of the obsolete verbs **laciō, to entice**, and **spiciō, to look** :

al-liciō	allicere	allexi	allectum	<i>to entice</i>
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So **il-liciō** and **pel-liciō, to decoy**, but **ē-liciō** thus :

ē-liciō	ēlicere	ēlicui	ēlicitum	<i>to draw out</i>
cōn-spiciō	cōnspicere	cōnspexi	cōnspectum	<i>to behold</i>

¹ The Perfect in **sui** seems to be a double formation : **sui** = **si** + **ui**.

² Observe that these three forms are from I-stems.

³ See 58, 6.

STEM IN A VOWEL

275. Principal Parts in *uō*, *uere*, *nī*, *ūtum*:

<i>exuō</i>	<i>exuere</i>	<i>exuī</i>	<i>exūtum</i>	<i>to put off</i>
<i>induō</i>	<i>induere</i>	<i>indui</i>	<i>indūtum</i>	<i>to put on</i>
<i>statuō</i>	<i>statuere</i>	<i>statui</i>	<i>statūtum</i>	<i>to place</i>
<i>tribuō</i>	<i>tribuere</i>	<i>tribui</i>	<i>tribūtum</i>	<i>to impart</i>

1. So nearly all verbs in *uō*, but note the following:

<i>ruō</i>	<i>ruere</i>	<i>ruī</i>	<i>rutum</i> ¹	<i>to fall</i>
<i>di-ruō</i>	<i>diruere</i>	<i>dirui</i>	<i>dirūtum</i>	<i>to destroy</i>
<i>fluō</i>	<i>fluere</i>	<i>fluxī</i> ²	<i>fluxum</i>	<i>to flow</i>
<i>struō</i>	<i>struere</i>	<i>strūxī</i> ²	<i>strūctum</i>	<i>to build</i>

2. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

<i>acuō</i>	<i>acvere</i>	<i>acui</i>	—	<i>to sharpen</i>
<i>arguō</i>	<i>arguere</i>	<i>argui</i>	—	<i>to accuse</i>
<i>ab-nuō</i>	<i>abnuere</i>	<i>abnuī</i>	—	<i>to refuse</i>
<i>con-gruō</i>	<i>congruere</i>	<i>congrui</i>	—	<i>to agree</i>

So *luō*, *to wash* *metuō*, *to fear* *re-spuō*, *to spurn*

276. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form their Present system from consonant stems, but their Perfect and Participial systems from vowel stems after the analogy of other conjugations:

<i>sternō</i>	<i>sternere</i>	<i>strāvi</i>	<i>strātum</i>	<i>to spread out</i>
<i>pro-sternō</i>	<i>prosternere</i>	<i>prostrāvi</i>	<i>prostrātum</i>	<i>to overthrow</i>
<i>dē-cernō</i>	<i>dēcernere</i>	<i>dēcrēvi</i>	<i>dēcrētum</i>	<i>to decide</i>
<i>sē-cernō</i>	<i>sēcernere</i>	<i>sēcrēvi</i>	<i>sēcrētum</i>	<i>to separate</i>
<i>spernō</i>	<i>spernere</i>	<i>sprēvi</i>	<i>sprētum</i>	<i>to spurn</i>
<i>arcessō</i>	<i>arcessere</i>	<i>arcessivi</i>	<i>arcessitum</i>	<i>to summon</i>
<i>capessō</i>	<i>capessere</i>	<i>capessivi</i>	<i>capessitum</i>	<i>to seize</i>
<i>laccessō</i>	<i>laccessere</i>	<i>laccessivi</i>	<i>laccessitum</i>	<i>to provoke</i>
<i>petō</i>	<i>petere</i>	<i>petivī</i> ³	<i>petitum</i>	<i>to seek</i>
<i>quaerō</i>	<i>quaerere</i>	<i>quaesivī</i>	<i>quaesitum</i>	<i>to seek</i>
<i>con-quirō</i>	<i>conquirere</i>	<i>conquisivī</i>	<i>conquisitum</i>	<i>to collect</i>
<i>rudō</i>	<i>rudere</i>	<i>rudivī</i>	—	<i>to bray</i>
<i>terō</i>	<i>terere</i>	<i>trivī</i>	<i>tritum</i>	<i>to rub</i>

¹ Future Participle *ruitūrus*.

² *Fluxi* from **flug-si*; *strūxi* follows the analogy of *fluxi*.

³ Sometimes *petil*.

1. Note the peculiarities in the following verbs :

faceſcō	faceſcere	faceſſi	faceſſitum	to perform
linō	linere	lēvi	litum	to smear
ſerō	ſerere	ſēvi	ſatum	to sow
cōn-ſerō	cōnſerere	cōnſēvi	cōnſitum	to plant
ſinō	ſinere	ſivi	ſitum	to permit
dē-ſinō	dēſinere	dēſiī ¹	dēſitum	to deſiſt
inceſcō	inceſcere	inceſſi	—	to attack

INCEPTIVE OR INCHOATIVE VERBS

277. Verbs in *ſcō* are called Inceptive or Inchoative verbs because moſt of them denote the Beginning of an Action. They are of three varieties :

1. Primitive Inceptives, formed directly from roots or from loſt verbs, generally without inceptive meaning.
2. Verbal Inceptives, formed from other verbs, generally with inceptive meaning.
3. Denominative Inceptives, formed from nouns and adjectives, chiefly from adjectives.

278. Primitive Inceptives ; Perfect in *vī*, or in *ī* with Reduplication.

pāſcō	pāſcere	pāvi	pāſtum	to feed
crēſcō	crēſcere	crēvi	crētum	to grow.
quiēſcō	quiēſcere	quiēvi	quiētum	to reſt
nōſcō	nōſcere	nōvi	nōtum	to come to know
ignōſcō ²	ignōſcere	ignōvi	ignōtum	to pardon
cōgnōſcō ²	cōgnōſcere	cōgnōvi	cōgnitum	to aſcertain
diſcō	diſcere	didici	—	to learn
pōſcō	pōſcere	popōſci	—	to demand

279. Many Verbal Inceptives have only the Preſent System in general uſe, but ſome take the Perfect of their Primitives whenever the occaſion requires it.

ārēſcō	ārēſcere	ārui	—	to become dry	from āreō
calēſcō	calēſcere	calui	—	to become warm	“ caleō

¹ Here *v* is dropped, *dēſiī* from *dēſivī*.

² *Ignōſcō* is compounded of *in*, meaning *not*, and *gnōſcō*, the full form of *nōſcō* which has loſt its initial *g*. *Cōgnōſcō* is compounded of *co* and *gnōſcō*.

flōrēscō	flōrēscere	flōruī	—	<i>to begin to bloom</i>	from flōrēō
ārdeō	ārdeō	ārsi	—	<i>to take fire</i>	" ārdeō
ab-olēscō	abolēscere	abolēvī	—	<i>to disappear</i>	" ab-oleō

1. A very few Verbal Inceptives have also certain forms of the Participial System:

ad-olēsc-ō	-ere	adolēvī	adultum	<i>to grow up</i>	from ad, oleō
ex-olēsc-ō	-ere	exolēvī	exolētum	<i>to go out of use</i>	" ex, oleō ¹
ob-olēsc-ō	-ere	obolēvī	obolētum	<i>to go out of use</i>	" ob, oleō
in-vetērāsc-ō	-ere	invetērāvī	invetērātum	<i>to grow old</i>	" invetērō
con-cupisc-ō	-ere	concupivī	concupitum	<i>to desire</i>	" con, cupiō
scisc-ō	-ere	scivī	scitum	<i>to enuct</i>	" sciō

280. Many Denominative Inceptives have only the Present System, but some have the Perfect in **ui**:

crēbrēsc-ō	-ere	crēbrui	—	<i>to grow frequent</i>	from crēber
dūrēsc-ō	-ere	dūruī	—	<i>to grow hard</i>	" dūrus
ē-vānēsc-ō	-ere	ēvānuī	—	<i>to disappear</i>	" ē, vānus
mātūrēsc-ō	-ere	mātūruī	—	<i>to ripen</i>	" mātūrus
ob-mūtēsc-ō	-ere	obmūtui	—	<i>to grow dumb</i>	" ob, mūtus
ob-surdēsc-ō	-ere	ōbsurduī	—	<i>to grow deaf</i>	" ob, surdus

DEPONENT VERBS

281. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in **tus sum**:

fruor	frui	fructus sum ²	<i>to enjoy</i>
per-fruor	perfrui	perfructus sum	<i>to enjoy fully</i>
fungor	fungi	fūctus sum	<i>to perform</i>
queror	queri	questus sum	<i>to complain</i>
loquor	loqui	locūtus sum	<i>to speak</i>
sequor	sequi	secūtus sum	<i>to follow</i>
per-sequor	persequi	persecūtus sum ³	<i>to pursue</i>
Note morior	mori	mortuus sum ⁴	<i>to die</i>
also liquor	liqui	—	<i>to melt</i>
ringor	ringi	—	<i>to growl</i>

282. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in **sus sum**:

gradior	gradī	gressus sum	<i>to walk</i>
in-gredior	ingredi	ingressus sum	<i>to go into</i>

¹ Or from **ex, soleō**, like **ob-soleō** from **ob, soleō**.

² Fut. Part. **fruitūrus**.

³ So other compounds of **sequor**.

⁴ The Future Participle of **morior** is **moritūrus**.

lābor	lābi	lāpsus sum	<i>to slip</i>
patior	pati	passus sum	<i>to suffer</i>
per-petior	perpeti	perpersus sum	<i>to endure</i>
ūtor	ūtī	ūsus sum	<i>to use</i>
nitor	niti	nīsus sum, nīsus sum	<i>to strive</i>
am-plector	amplecti	amplexus sum	<i>to embrace</i>

Note **re-vertor**, **reverti**; Perfect, **reverti**, rarely **reversus sum**, *to return*.

283. Deponent Verbs with Inceptive Forms:

apiscor	apisci	—	<i>to reach</i>
ad-ipiscor	adipisci	adeptus sum	<i>to acquire</i>
con-miniscor	conminisci	conmentus sum	<i>to devise</i>
re-miniscor	reminisci	—	<i>to remember</i>
ex-pergiscor	expergisci	experrēctus sum	<i>to awake</i>
nanciscor	nancisci	nactus (nactus) sum	<i>to obtain</i>
nāscor	nāsci	nātus sum	<i>to be born</i>
ob-liviscor	oblivisci	oblītus sum	<i>to forget</i>
paciscor	pacisci	pactus sum	<i>to covenant</i>
pro-ficiscor	proficisci	profectus sum	<i>to set out</i>
uleiscor	uleisci	ultus sum	<i>to avenge</i>
irāscor	irāsci	—	<i>to be angry</i>
vescor	vesci	—	<i>to eat</i>

1. Note the following Semi-Deponent verb:

fidō	fidere	fīsus sum	<i>to trust</i>
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Fourth Conjugation

284. Principal Parts in **iō, ire, ivi, itum**:

audiō	audire	audivi	auditum	<i>to hear</i>
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1. All regular verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts like **audiō**, but note the following:

sepeliō	sepellire	sepelivi	sepultum ¹	<i>to bury</i>
sitiō	sitire	sitivi	—	<i>to thirst</i>
vāgiō	vāgīre	vāgivi	—	<i>to cry</i>

2. **V** is often lost in the Perfect: **audii** for **audivi**; see 238, 2.

285. Principal Parts in **iō, ire, ui, tum**:

amiciō	amicire	amicui ²	amictum	<i>to wrap about</i>
aperiō	aperire	aperui	apertum	<i>to open</i>

¹ With irregular formation.

² The Perfect is rare and late.

operiō	operire	operui	opertum	to cover
salīō	salire	salui, salii	--	to leap
dē-siliō	dēsiliire	dēsilui, dēsiliit	--	to leap down

286. Principal Parts in iō, ire, sī, tum or sum:

farcīō	farcire	farsi	fartum ¹	to fill
re-fercīō	referire	refersi	refertum	to stuff
fulciō	fulcire	fulsi	fultum	to prop up
haurīō	haurire	hausi ²	haustum ³	to draw
saepīō	saepire	saepsi	saepum	to hedge in
sanciō	sancire	sānxi	sānctum	to ratify
sarciō	sarcire	sarsi	sartum	to patch
vinciō	vincire	vinxi	vinctum	to bind
rauciō	raucire	(rausi ⁴)	rausum	to be hoarse
sentiō	sentire	sēnsi	sēnsum	to feel

287. Principal Parts in iō, ire, ī, tum:

1. PERFECT (ORIGINALLY REDUPLICATED)

com-periō	comperire	comperi ⁵	competum	to learn
re-periō	reperire	re-p-peri	reperum	to find out

2. PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

veniō	venire	vēni	ventum	to come
ad-veniō	advenire	advēni	adventum	to arrive
in-veniō	invenire	invēni	inventum	to find out

288. A few verbs of this conjugation have only the present system in general use. The following are the most important:

1. Desideratives, but **ēsuriō**, to desire to eat, has the Future Participle **ēsuritūrus**.

2. Also

balbūtiō, to stammer	feriō, to strike	ganniō, to bark
ineptiō, to trifle	sāgiō, to discern	superbiō, to be haughty

¹ C disappears between r and s, l and s, r and t, l and t; see 58, 1.

² Hausi is simplified from haus-si; the stem is haus; hauriō from hausio.

³ Fut. Part. hausūrus.

⁴ This verb is exceedingly rare and the Perfect without good authority.

⁵ The reduplicated form of the simple verb was **pe-peri**. We find a trace of the reduplication in the first p in **re-p-peri**, from **re-pe-peri**.

DEPONENT VERBS

289. All regular Deponent Verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts as follows:

blandior	blandiri	blanditus sum	<i>to flatter</i>
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The following are somewhat irregular:

ex-perior	experiri	expertus sum	<i>to try</i>
op-perior	opperiri	oppertus sum	<i>to await</i>
orior ¹	oriri	ortus sum	<i>to rise</i>
ad-orior	adoriri	adortus sum	<i>to assail</i>
as-sentior	assentiri	assensus sum	<i>to assent</i>
mētior	mētiri	mēnsus sum	<i>to measure</i>
ōrdior	ōrdiri	ōrsus sum	<i>to begin</i>

Irregular Verbs

290. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are **sum**, **edō**, **ferō**, **volō**, **fiō**, **eō**, **queō**, and their compounds.

1. The inflection of **sum** has already been given (205). Most of its compounds — **ab-sum**, **ad-sum**, **dē-sum**, **ob-sum**, **prae-sum**, etc. — are inflected in the same way, but **ab-sum** has **ā-fui**, **ā-futūrus**, and a Present Participle **ab-sēns**, *absent*. **Prae-sum** has a Present Participle **prae-sēns**, *present*. **Pos-sum** and **prō-sum** require special treatment.

291. Possum	posse	potui	<i>to be able</i>
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INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	possum, potes, potest	possumus, potestis, possunt
Imp.	poteram ²	poterāmus
Fut.	poterō	poterimus ³
Perf.	potui	potuimus
Plup.	potueram	potuerāmus
F. P.	potuerō	potuerimus

¹ In the Present Indicative and Imperative **orior** is inflected as a verb of the Third Conjugation: **orior**, **oreris**, **oritur**, etc.; **orere**; in the Imperfect Subjunctive, it has both **orerer**, **orerēris**, etc., and **orirer**, **orirēris**, etc. So all compounds of **orior**, except **ad-orior**, which has only forms of the Fourth Conjugation.

² Inflected regularly through the different persons: **poteram**, **poterās**, **poterat**, etc. So in the other tenses: **potui**, **potuisti**, etc.

³ **Poterunt**, third person plural, but **poterint** also occurs.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	possim, possis, possit	possimus, possitis, possint
Imp.	possem	possēmus
Perf.	potuerim	potuerimus
Plup.	potuissem	potuissēmus

INFINITIVE

Pres.	posse
Perf.	potuisse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	potēns (<i>as an adjective</i>)
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1. **Possum** forms its present system from a compound of **pot** (for **potis**, **pote**), **able**, and **sum**. **Pot-sum** becomes **possum** by assimilation, and **pot-esse** and **pot-essem** are shortened to **posse** and **possem**.¹

2. The parts of **possum** are sometimes used separately, and then **potis**, **pote** is indeclinable: **potis sum**, *I am able*; **potis sumus**, *we are able*, etc.

3. **Possum** derives its Perfect, **potui**, and its Present Participle, **potēns**, from the verb **potēre**, which has otherwise disappeared from the language.

4. In rare instances passive forms occur in early Latin, as **potestur** = **potest**, **poterātur** = **poterat**, used with Passive Infinitives.

292. Prō-sum prōd-esse prō-fui to profit

Prō-sum is compounded of **prō**, **prōd**, *for*, and **sum**. It retains **d** from **prōd**, when the simple verb begins with **e**, but otherwise it is inflected like **sum**:

prō-sum, prōd-es, prōd-est, prō-sumus, prōd-estis, prō-sunt, etc.

293. Edō edere ēdī ēsum to eat

In certain parts of the present system this verb has both regular and irregular forms, as follows:

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

Pres.	{ edō	edis	edit	edimus	editis	edunt
	{ ēs	ēst			ēstis	

SUBJUNCTIVE

Imp.	{ ederem	ederēs	ederet	ederēmus	ederētis	ederent
	{ ēssem	ēsēs	ēset	ēsēmus	ēsētis	ēsent

¹ But the full forms also occur: **pot-esse**, **pot-essem**, etc.; also **pot-isse** and **pot-issent**.

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	{ ede ē	edite ēste	
Fut.	{ editō ēstō	editōte ēstōte	eduntō

INFINITIVE

Pres.	edere	ēsse
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Passive Voice

INDICATIVE

Pres.	{ edor ē	ederis	editur ēstur	edimur	edimini	eduntur
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SUBJUNCTIVE

Imp.	{ ederer ē	ederēris	ederētur ēssētur	ederēmur	ederēmini	ederentur
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1. In all the other tenses this verb has the regular inflection, but forms in **im** for **am** occur in the Present Subjunctive: **edim**, **edīs**, **edit**, etc., for **edam**, **edās**, **edat**, etc.

2. Observe that the shorter forms have **ē** in the root syllable, but that otherwise they are like the corresponding forms of the verb, **sum**. They are the favorite forms in classical Latin.

3. Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but note
com-edō com-edere com-ēdi com-ēsum or com-ēstum *to eat up*

294. Ferō ferre tuli lātum *to bear*

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	ferō, fers, fert	ferimus, fertis, ¹ ferunt
Imp.	ferēbam ²	ferēbāmus
Fut.	feram	ferēmus
Perf.	tuli	tulimus
Plup.	tuleram	tulerāmus
F. P.	tulerō	tulerimus

¹ **Fer-s**, **fer-t**, **fer-tis**, like **es-t**, **es-tis**, are formed without the thematic vowel.

² Inflect the several tenses in full; **ferēbam**, **ferēbās**, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	feram	ferāmus
Imp.	ferrem	ferrēmus ¹
Perf.	tulerim	tulerimus
Plup.	tulissem	tulissēmus

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	fer	ferte
Perf.	fertō	fertōte
	fertō	ferantō

INFINITIVE

Pres.	ferre ¹
Perf.	tulisse
Fut.	lātūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	ferēns
Fut.	lātūrus

GERUND

Gen.	ferendī
Dat.	ferendō
Acc.	ferendum
Abl.	ferendō

SUPINE

Acc.	lātum
Abl.	lātū

Passive Voice

feror	ferri	lātus sum	<i>to be borne</i>
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INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	feror, ferris, fertur	ferimur, ferimini, feruntur
Imp.	ferēbar	ferēbāmur
Fut.	ferar	ferēmur
Perf.	lātus sum	lāti sumus
Plup.	lātus eram	lāti erāmus
F. P.	lātus erō	lāti erimus

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	ferar	ferāmur
Imp.	ferrer	ferrēmur
Perf.	lātus sim	lāti simus
Plup.	lātus essem	lāti essēmus

¹ Fer-rem, fer-rēs, etc., from fer-sēm, fer-sēs, etc., like es-sēm, es-sēs, etc.; and fer-re from fer-se like es-se, are formed without the thematic vowel. Several other forms have the same peculiarity.

MORPHOLOGY

IMPERATIVE		
Pres.	ferre	ferimini
Fut.	fertor	—
	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	ferri		
Perf.	lātum esse	Perf.	lātus
Fut.	lātum iri	Ger.	ferendus

1. **Ferō** is inflected from two independent stems, **fer** seen in **fer-ō** and **tel**, **tol** in **tul-i**, with the ablaut form **tl** seen in **tl-ā-tum**, the original form of **lātum**.

2. Compounds of **ferō** are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ad	ad-ferō	ad-ferre	at-tulī	al-lātum	<i>to carry to</i>
au, ab ¹	au-ferō	au-ferre	abs-tulī	ab-lātum	<i>to carry away</i>
con	cōn-ferō	con-ferre	con-tulī	col-lātum	<i>to bring together</i>
dis, di ¹	dif-ferō	dif-ferre	dis-tulī	di-lātum	<i>to carry apart</i>
ex, ē ¹	ef-ferō	ef-ferre	ex-tulī	ē-lātum	<i>to carry out</i>
in	in-ferō	in-ferre	in-tulī	il-lātum	<i>to carry into</i>
ob	of-ferō	of-ferre	ob-tulī	ob-lātum	<i>to bring before</i>
re	re-ferō	re-ferre	re-tulī	re-lātum	<i>to carry back</i>
sub	suf-ferō	suf-ferre	sus-tulī	sub-lātum	<i>to suffer</i>

NOTE.—In form **sus-tulī** and **sub-lātum** belong to the verb **sus-tulēre**, *to undertake, to bear, suffer*, and they sometimes have this meaning; but they also supply the Perfect and the Perfect Participle of **ferre**, *to carry*.

295.	Volō	velle	volui	<i>to be willing</i>
	Nolō	nolle	nolui	<i>to be unwilling</i>
	Mālō	mālle	mālui	<i>to prefer</i>

INDICATIVE			
Pres.	volō	nolō	mālō
	vis	nōn vis	māvis
	vult	nōn vult	māvult

¹ **Au** and **ab** are two separate prepositions; but with the above general meaning; **dis** and **di** are two forms of one and the same preposition; as also **ex** and **ē**.

	volumus	nolumus	molumus
	vultis	nōn vultis	māvultis
	volunt	nolunt	mālunt
Imp.	volēbam	nolēbam	mālēbam
Fut.	volam	nolam	mālam
Perf.	volui	noluī	māluī
Plup.	volueram	nolueram	mālueram
F. P.	voluerō	noluerō	māluerō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	velim ¹	nolim	mālim
Imp	vellem ²	nollem	māllem
Perf.	voluerim	noluerim	māluerim
Plup.	voluissē	noluissem	māluissē

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	noli	nolite
Fut.	nolitō	nolitēte
	nolitō	noluntō

INFINITIVE

Pres.	velle	nolle	mālle
Perf.	voluisse	noluisse	māluisse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	volēns	fiolēns
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1. The stem of *volō* is *vel*, *vol*, in which *o* is weakened to *u* in *vult*. *Vis* is from a separate stem, *vi*.

2. *Molō* is from *ne-volō*; *mālō* supplanted an earlier formation, *mā-volō*, from *magis-volō*.

3. Other forms occur, especially in early Latin,

of *volō*: *volt*, *voltis*, *sis*, *sultis*, for *si vis*, *si vultis*;

of *nolō*: *ne-vis*, *ne-volt*, *nōn velim*, *nōn vellem*,

of *mālō*: *mā-volō*, *mā-volam*, *mā-velim*, *mā-vellem*

Velim is inflected like *stim*, and *vellem* like *essem*.

Vellem is from *vel-ssm*, like *es-ssm*; *velle* from *vel-se*, like *es-se*. Here *e* is assimilated to the preceding *i*.

MORPHOLOGY

296. The regular verb *faciō, facere, feci, factum, to make*, has the following irregular Passive:

iō, fieri, factus sum, to become, be

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	<i>fiō, fis, fit</i>	<i>fiunt</i>
Imp.	<i>fiēbam</i>	<i>fiēbāmus</i>
Fut.	<i>fiam</i>	<i>fiēmus</i>
Perf.	<i>factus sum</i>	<i>facti sumus</i>
Plup.	<i>factus eram</i>	<i>facti erāmus</i>
F. P.	<i>factus erō</i>	<i>facti erimus</i>

	SUBJUNCTIVE	
Pres.	<i>fiam</i>	<i>fiāmus</i>
Imp.	<i>fierem</i>	<i>fierēmus</i>
Perf.	<i>factus sim</i>	<i>facti simus</i>
Plup.	<i>factus essem</i>	<i>facti essemus</i>

	IMPERATIVE	
Pres.	<i>fi</i>	<i>fite</i>

	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
Pres.	<i>fieri</i>	
Perf.	<i>factum esse</i>	Perf. <i>factus</i>
Fut.	<i>factum iri</i>	Ger. <i>faciendus</i>

1. The first and second persons plural of the Present Indicative are not found.

2. The Imperative forms *fi* and *fite* belong to early and late Latin. A rare Infinitive, *fiere*, occurs in early Latin.

3. For the compounds of *faciō* and *fiō*, see 274.

4. Moreover, a few isolated forms of compounds of *fiō*, with prepositions, occur as follows:—

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INFINITIVE
<i>cōnfit, cōnfluit</i>	<i>cōnfiat, cōnfieret</i>	<i>cōnferi to be done</i>
<i>dēfit, dēfluit, dēfiet</i>	<i>dēfiat</i>	<i>dēferi to be wanting</i>
<i>infit, influit</i>		<i>he begins, they begin</i>
	<i>interfiat</i>	<i>interferi to be destroyed</i>

297. **Eō** **ire** **ii** **itum** *to go*

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
Pres.	eō	is	it	imus	itis	eunt
Imp.	ibam	ibas	ibat	ibamus	ibatis	ibant
Fut.	ibō	ibis	ibit	ibimus	ibitis	ibunt
Perf.	ii	isti	it	iimus	istis	ierunt
Plup.	ieram	ierās	ierat	ierāmus	ierātis	ierant
F. P.	ierō	ieris	ierit	ierimus	ieritis	ierint

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	eam	eās	eat	eamus	eātis	eant
Imp.	irem	irēs	iret	irēmus	irētis	irent
Perf.	ierim	ieris	ierit	ierimus	ieritis	ierint
Plup.	issem	issēs	isset	issemus	issētis	issent

INFINITIVE

Pres.	ire
Perf.	isse
Fut.	itūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pr. iēns	Gen. euntis
Fut. itūrus	

GERUND

Gen.	eundi
Dat.	eundō
Acc.	eundum
Abl.	eundō

SUPINE

Acc.	itum
Abl.	itū

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	i	ite
Fut.	itō	itōte
	itō	euntō

1. **Eō** is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine from the weak stem **i**, and is irregular in several parts of the present system. In the perfect system the regular classical forms are **ii**, **ieram**, **ierō**, etc., as given in the paradigm, but the forms with **v**, as **ivi**, **iveram**, **iverō**, etc., occur in early and late Latin.

2. Observe that **ii** is regularly contracted into **i** before **s**, as **issem**, but the uncontracted **ii** is found in rare instances.

3. The stem of **eō** is the root **ei**, weak form **i**. **Ei** becomes **e** before **ā**, **ō**, and **u**, as in **eam**, **eāmus**, **eō**, **eunt**, but in other situations it becomes **i**,

shortened to *i* before a vowel or final *t*, as in *is*, *imus*, *itis*; *imus*, *ierō*, *it*. The weak stem is seen in *i-tum* and *i-tūrus*.

4. As an intransitive verb *eō* has no regular passive voice, but certain passive forms are used impersonally: *itur*, *there is going*; *itum est*, *they have gone*; but *iri*, the Passive Infinitive, is used as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugation: *amātum iri*, etc.

5. Compounds of *eō* have the short form in the Perfect System and are conjugated as follows:

ab-eō	abire	abii	abitum	<i>to go away</i>
ex-eō	exire	exii	exitum	<i>to go out</i>

NOTE. — A few compounds occasionally have a future in *iet*, for *ibit*.

6. Transitive Compounds of *eō* may be used in the passive voice, as *ad-eō*, *adire*, *to approach*; Passive *ad-eor*, *adīris*, *aditur*, etc. Passive forms are somewhat rare.

7. *Ambiō* (from *ambi-eō*), *ambire*, *ambivi*, *ambitum*, *to solicit*, is inflected as a regular verb of the Fourth Conjugation, like *audiō*, though *ambibam* for *ambiebam* occurs.

298. *Queō*, *quire*, *quivi*, *quii*, *to be able*, and *ne-queō*, *nequire*, *nequivi*, *ne-quii*, *not to be able*, are inflected like *eō*, but they are used chiefly in early writers.

1. The forms most frequently used by the best writers are *nōn queō*, *nōn queam*, *nōn queat*, *nōn queant*, *nōn quire*; *nequeunt*, *nequeāmus*, *nequeant*, *nequibās*, *nequibat*, *nequibant*, *nequisti*, *nequit*, *nequiēre*, *nequierat*, *nequierant*, *nequirem*, *nequifret*, *nequire*.

Defective Verbs

299. The following verbs lack the Present System:

<i>Coepi</i> , <i>I have begun</i>	<i>Memini</i> , <i>I remember</i>	<i>Ōdi</i> , <i>I hate</i>
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INDICATIVE

Perf.	<i>coepi</i>	<i>memini</i>	<i>odi</i>
Plup.	<i>coeperam</i>	<i>memineram</i>	<i>oderam</i>
F. P.	<i>coeperō</i>	<i>meminerō</i>	<i>oderō</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE

Perf.	<i>coeperim</i>	<i>memnerim</i>	<i>oderim</i>
Plup.	<i>coepissem</i>	<i>meminissem</i>	<i>odissem</i>

IMPERATIVE

Sing. mementō

Plur. mementōte

INFINITIVE

Perf.	coepisse	meminisse	ōdisse
Fut.	coeptūrum esse		ōsūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Perf.	coeptus	ōsus ¹
Fut.	coeptūrus	ōsūrus

1. With Passive Infinitives, **coepī** generally takes the passive form: **coeptus sum, eram**, etc. **Coeptus** is passive in sense.

2. **Memini** and **ōdī** are Present in sense; hence in the Pluperfect and Future Perfect they have the sense of the Imperfect and Future. **Nōvī**, *I know*, Perfect of **nōscō**, *to learn*, and **cōnsuēvī**, *I am wont*, Perfect of **cōnsuēscō**, *to accustom one's self*, are also present in sense.

300. The three following verbs are used chiefly in certain parts of the Present System.

Āiō, *I say, I say yes*:²

INDICATIVE

Pres.	āiō	ais ³	ait	—	—	aiunt
Imp.	aiēbam ⁴	aiēbās	aiēbat	aiēbāmus	aiēbātis	aiēbant
Perf.	—	—	ait	—	—	—

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	—	aiās	aiat	—	—	aiant
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IMPERATIVE

Pres. ai (rare)

PARTICIPLE

Pres. aiēns

¹ **Ōsus** is active in sense, *hating*, but is rare, except in compounds.

² In this verb **a** and **i** do not form a diphthong; before a vowel **i** is a consonant; see 12, 2.

³ The interrogative form **ais-ne** is often shortened to **ain**.

⁴ **Aibam**, **aiabās**, etc., occur.

Inquam, *I say*, is used in connection with direct quotations and is inserted after one or more of the words quoted.

Indic. Pres.	inquam	inquis	inquit	inquimus	inquitis ¹	inquiunt
" Imp.	--	--	inquiēbat ¹	--	--	--
" Fut.	--	inquiēs	inquiet	--	--	--
" Perf.	inquii	inquisti	inquit	--	--	--
Imper. Pres.	inque	Fut. inquitō				

Fāri, to speak

Indic. Pres.	--	--	fātur	--	--	fantur
" Fut.	fābor	--	fābitur	--	--	--
" Perf.	--	--	fātus est	--	--	fātī sunt
" Plup.	fātus eram	--	fātus erat	--	--	--
Imper. Pres.	fāre					
Infin. Pres.	fāri					
Part. Pres.	fāns	--	fanti	fantem		fante
" Past	fātus					
" Ger.	fundus					
Gerund. Gen.	fandī	Abl. fandō		Supine, Abl. fātū		

1. **Fāri** is used chiefly in poetry. The compounds have a few forms not found in the simple verb, as *af-fāmur*, *af-fāminī*, *af-fābar*, etc.

301. Certain verbs have only a few special forms.

1. Imperative and Infinitive.

havē	havēte	havētō	havēre ²	<i>hail, to be well</i>
salvō	salvēte ³	salvētō	salvēre	<i>hail, to be well</i>
cedō	cette			<i>give me, tell me</i>
apage				<i>away with you</i>

2. Other forms:

ovat	ovāns	<i>he rejoices, rejoicing</i>
quaesō	quaesumus	<i>I entreat, we entreat</i>

Impersonal Verbs

302. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English impersonal verbs with *it*. *licet, it is lawful*; *oportet, it is proper*. They are conjugated like

¹ *Inquitis* is rare. *Inquibat* for *inquiēbat* occurs.

² Also written *avē*, *avēte*; *avētō*, *avēre*

³ The Future *salvōbis* is also used for the Imperative.

other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

1. The subject, when expressed, is generally an Infinitive or a clause: **hōc fieri oportet**, *that this should be done is proper*.

2. The following verbs are generally impersonal:

ningit	ningere	ninoxit	<i>it snows</i>
pluit	pluere	pluit	<i>it rains</i>
tonat	tonāre	tonāvit	<i>it thunders</i>
decet	decēre	deceit	<i>it is becoming</i>
licet	licēre	licuit, licitum est	<i>it is lawful</i>
miseret ¹	miserēre	miseritum est	<i>it excites pity</i>
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	<i>it is proper</i>
paenitet ¹	paenitēre	paenituit	<i>it causes regret</i>
piget	pigēre	piguit	<i>it grieves</i>
pudet	pudēre	puduit, puditum est	<i>it puts to shame</i>
rēfert	rēferre	rētulit	<i>it concerns</i>
taedet	taedēre	taeduit, taesum est	<i>it disgusts</i>

3. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense:

From **licet**: **licēns**, *free*; **licitus**, *allowed*.

From **paenitet**: **paenitēns**, *penitent*; **paenitendus**, *to be repented of*.

From **pudet**: **pudēns**, *modest*; **pudendus**, *shameful*.

4. Gerunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: **paenitendum**, **pudendū**.

5. A few verbs, generally personal, admit the impersonal construction in certain senses:

accēdit, <i>it is added</i>	accidit, <i>it happens</i>	appāret, <i>it is clear</i>
cōstat, <i>it is agreed</i>	praestat, <i>it is better</i>	restat, <i>it remains</i>
contingit, <i>it happens</i>	dēlectat, <i>it delights</i>	dolet, <i>it grieves</i>
ēvenit, <i>it happens</i>	interest, <i>it interests</i>	iuvat, <i>it delights</i>
patet, <i>it is plain</i>	placet, <i>it pleases</i>	

6. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter: **mihī crēditur**, *it is credited to me, I am believed*; **crēditum est**, *it was believed*; **curritur**, *there is running, people run*; **pūgnātur**, *it is fought, they, we, etc., fight*; **vivitur**, *we, you, they live*.

7. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (237) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter: **mihī scribendum est**, *I must write*.

¹ **Mē miseret**, *I pity*; **mē paenitet**, *I repent*.

PARTICLES

303. The Latin has four parts of speech, sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS

304. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: *celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.*

305. Adverbs may be divided into three general classes:

1. Adverbs which were originally the case forms of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
2. Adverbs formed by means of suffixes no longer used in the regular declensions.
3. Adverbs formed by the union of prepositions with case forms.

306. Many adverbs were originally Accusatives, both in form and in meaning.

1. Accusatives of Nouns: *vicem, in turn; partim, partly.*
2. Here perhaps may be mentioned adverbs in *tim* and *sim*, probably formed originally from verbal nouns no longer in use: *statim, steadily*;¹ *raptim, hastily; contemptim, contemptuously; furtim, stealthily.* These adverbs are sometimes explained as Accusatives, and sometimes as Instrumental cases.
3. Accusatives of Adjectives and Pronouns: *multum, multa, much; ceterum, cetera, as to the rest; verum, truly; facile, easily; saepius, oftener; bifariam = bifariam partem, in two parts; alias = alias vicēs, otherwise; tam, so much; quam, as much.*

307. Many adverbs were originally Ablatives.²

1. Ablatives of Nouns: *forte, by chance; iure, rightly; numero, exactly; sponte, willingly.*

¹ Thus *statim* may be formed from *statis*, which is no longer in use, because supplanted by *statim*. Subsequently it seems to have been associated with the verb *stā-re*, and perhaps some adverbs in *tim* were formed from verbs by analogy. But some adverbs in *tim* and *sim* are formed from adjectives: *singulatim, one by one.* In time, doubtless, these endings came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were used in forming new adverbs.

² The term Ablative, as applied in Latin, includes not only the Ablative proper, but all forms originally Instrumental, and such Locatives as are not easily recognized.

2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles: *dextrā*, on the right; *extrā*, on the outside; *rārō*, rarely; *doctē*, learnedly; *doctissimē*, most learnedly; *māximē*, especially; *auspicātō*, after taking the auspices; *cōsultō*, after deliberating.

3. Ablatives of Pronouns: *eā*, there, in that way; *hāc*, here, in this way; *eādem*, in the same way.

4. A few Pronominal Adverbs denote direction toward a place: *eō*, to that place; *hōc*, *hūc*, to this place; *illō*, *illō c.*, to that place; *istō*, *istō c.*, to your place. These adverbs are explained as Instrumental Ablatives.

5. Here may be mentioned a few adverbs in *im*, *in-c*: *illim*, *illin-c*, from that place; *interim*, meanwhile; often with *de*: *in-de*, thence; *proin-de*, hence. These adverbs may be Instrumental Ablatives.

308. Some Adverbs were originally Locatives, denoting the Place or Time in which anything is done.

1. Locatives of Nouns and Adjectives in *i* or *ē*: *herī*, yesterday; *temperī*, in time; *vesperī*, in the evening; *peregrī*, or *peregrā*, in a foreign land.

2. Locatives of Pronouns: *hic*,¹ here; *illīc*, *istīc*, there; *ibī*, there; *ubī*, where; *sic*, in this way, thus.

309. Adverbs in *tus* and *ter*.²—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings *tus* and *ter*, which are no longer used as case endings in the regular declensions: *fundi-tus*, from the foundation; *rādīci-tus*, from the roots, utterly; *divīni-tus*, by divine appointment, divinely; *forti-ter*, bravely; *prūden-ter*, prudently.

1. The stem vowel before *tus* and *ter* becomes *i*, and consonant stems assume *i*, but *ti* is lost by dissimilation (56) before *ter*: *prūden-ti-ter*, *prūden-ter*.

310. Some adverbs are formed by the union of case forms with prepositions, even with prepositions with which they are not otherwise used: *ad-modum*, to the full measure, fully; *ex-templō*, immediately; *ant-eā*, before, before that; *inter-eā*, in the meantime; *post-eā*, afterward; *tantis-per*, for so long a time.

1. A very few adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose words have become united in writing, as *scilicet*, from *scire licet*, certainly; lit. it is permitted to know; *videlicet*, from *videre licet*, clearly; *forsitan*, from *fors sit an*, perhaps.

311. Comparison.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the

¹ Here the Locative ending is *i*: *hī-c*, *illī-c*.

² Seen also in *in-tus*, within; *in-ter*, in the midst; *sub-tus*, *sub-ter*, below.

MORPHOLOGY

Accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending **us** of the adjective into **ē**:¹

altus	altior	altissimus	<i>lofty</i>
altē	altius	altissimē	<i>loftily</i>

1. When the adjective is compared with **magis** and **māximē**, the adverb is compared in the same way :

ēgregius	magis ēgregius	māximē ēgregius	<i>excellent</i>
ēgregiē	magis ēgregiē	māximē ēgregiē	<i>excellently</i>

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity :

bonus	melior	optimus	<i>good</i>
bene	melius	optimē	<i>well</i>

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective :

—	dēterior	dēterrimus	<i>worse</i>
—	dēterius	dēterrimē	<i>worse</i>
novus	—	novissimus	<i>new</i>
novē	—	novissimē	<i>newly</i>

4. A few adverbs not derived from adjectives are compared :

diū	diūtius	diūtissimē	<i>for a long time</i>
saepē	saepius	saepissimē	<i>often</i>
satis	satius	—	<i>sufficiently</i>
nūper	—	nūperrimē	<i>recently</i>

5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (160), are not compared : **hic**, *here* ; **nunc**, *now* ; **vulgāriter**, *commonly*.

6. Superlatives in **ō** or **um** are used in a few adverbs : **prīmō**, *primum*, **potissimum**.

PREPOSITIONS

312. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other : **in Italiā esse**, *to be in Italy* ; **ante mē**, *before me*.

1. Prepositions were originally adverbs.²

2. For Prepositions and their uses, see **420, 490**.

3. For the form and meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see **374**.

313. Inseparable Prepositions, so called because they are used only in composition, are the following :

¹ See **307, 2**.

² But many adverbs, it will be remembered, are in origin case forms.

ambi, amb, around, about
 au, away, from
 dis, di, asunder

in, not, un-
 por, toward, forth
 red, re, back

sēd, sē, aside, apart
 vē, not, without

1. For the form and meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see 375.

CONJUNCTIONS

314. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Coördinate or Subordinate.

1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptās-que,¹ *labor and pleasure.*

Carthāginem cepit ac¹ diruit, *he took and destroyed Carthage.*

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Hæc dum¹ colligunt, effūgit, *while they collected these things, he escaped.*

NOTE.—For the use of subordinate conjunctions, see 568, 574.

315. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise:

1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting Union:

Et, que, atque,² ac, *and*; etiam, quoque, *also*; neque, nec, *and not*; neque . . . neque, nec . . . nec, neque . . . nec, *neither . . . nor*.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting Separation:

Aut,³ vel, ve, sive (seu), *or*; aut . . . aut, vel . . . vel, *either . . . or*; sive . . . sive, *either . . . or*.

NOTE.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: *utrum . . . an, whether . . . or*; *an, or*; *annōn, necne, or not*; see 380.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting Opposition:

Sed,⁴ autem, vērū, vērō, *in truth, but*; at, *but, on the contrary*; atque, *rather*; cēterum, *but still, moreover*;⁵ tamen, *yet*.

¹ Here *que* connects two Nominatives, *ac* two Indicatives, which are entirely coördinate, but *dum* connects the subordinate clause, *hæc . . . colligunt*, with the principal clause, *effūgit*, *he escaped while they collected these things*.

² Copulative conjunctions are *et* and *que* with their compounds: *et-iam, at-que, quo-que, ne-que*. *Ac* is a shortened form of *at-que*; *nec* of *ne-que*.

³ Disjunctives are *aut*, *vel*, and *ve* with their compounds. *Vel* is the Imperative of *volō*, lit. *choose*.

⁴ Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case forms, chiefly from pronominal stems, especially from the stems of *qui*, *quæ*, *quod*.

⁵ Lit. *as to the rest*.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting Inference :

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, *hence, therefore.*

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause :

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, *for.*¹

316. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise :

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting Time :

Quandō, quom,² cum, *when* ; ut, ubi, *as, when* ; cum primum, ut primum, ubi primum, simul, simulac, simul ac, simul atque, simul-atque, *as soon as* ; dum, donec, quoad, quamdiū, *while, until, as long as* ; antequam, priusquam, *before* ; posteaquam, *after.*

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting Comparison :

Ut, uti, sicut, *as, so as* ; velut, *just as* ; praeut, prout, *according as, in comparison with* ; quam, *as* ; tanquam, quasi, ut si, velut si, *as if.*

3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting Condition :

Si,³ *if* ; si nōn, nisi, nī, *if not* ; sīn, *but if* ; si quidem or si-quidem, *indeed* ; si modo, dum, modo, dummodo, *if only, provided.*

4. Adversative and Concessive Conjunctions, denoting Opposition and Concession :

Quamquam, licet,⁴ cum, *although* ; etsi, tametsi, etiamsi, *even if* ; quamvis,⁴ quantumvis, quantumlibet,⁴ *however much, although* ; ut, *grant that* ; nē, *grant that not.*

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting Purpose or End :

Ut, uti, *that, in order that* ; nē, nēve (neu), *that not* ; quō, *that* ; quōminus,⁵ quān, *that not.*

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting Consequence or Result :

Ut, *so that* ; ut nōn, *so that not.*

¹ But most causal conjunctions are subordinate : see 316, 7.

² Quom, the original form from which cum was developed, occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.

³ Probably a Locative.

⁴ Licet is strictly a verb, meaning *it is permitted* ; vis, *you wish*, in quam-vis and quantum-vis, *as much as you wish*, and libet, *it pleases*, in quantum-libet, *as much as it pleases*, are also verbs.

⁵ Quōminus = quō-minus, *by which less* ; quān = quī-ne, *by which not*, originally interrogative, *how not?*

7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause:

Quia, quod, quoniam,¹ *quandō*, *because*, *inasmuch as*; cum (quom), *since*; *quandōquidem*, *sī quidem*, *or siquidem*,² *utpote*, *since indeed*.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, in dependent or indirect questions:³

Ne, nōne, num, utrum, an, *whether*; an nōn, necne, *or not*.

INTERJECTIONS

317. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address.⁴ They may express

1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, attat, babae.
2. Joy: iō, euhoe, euge, ēia, ē, papae.
3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, Eheu, ohē, ōh, au, prō.
4. Disgust: aha, phŷ, apage.
5. Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
6. Praise: eu, euge, ēia, hēia.

PART III.—ETYMOLOGY

318. Words in our family of languages were originally formed by the union of primitive elements called Roots.

319. In the formation of words in an inflected language, we distinguish Inflection, Derivation, and Composition; but inflection and derivation are both the result of original composition. The suffixes of inflection and derivation are the worn and mutilated remains of original members of compound words.

¹ From *quom-iam*, *when now*.

² Lit. *if indeed*.

³ These are sometimes classed as adverbs. In some of their uses they are plainly conjunctions, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of adverbs. As a matter of convenience they may be called Interrogative Particles; see 378.

⁴ Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as *age*, *come*, *apage*, *be-gone*, or mutilated sentences or clauses: *meherculēs*, *mehercule*, etc., = *mē Herculēs iuvet*, *may Hercules protect me*; *mēdius fidius*, *may the true God help me*.

INFLECTION AND DERIVATION

320. Inflection forms Cases, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons by adding appropriate suffixes to stems: *rég-is*, *rég-em*, *rég-ēs*, *rég-ibus*; *sta-t*, *sta-nt*, *stā-mus*, *stā-tis*.

1. In Latin, a stem which cannot be resolved into more primitive elements is also a root. Thus *stā*, the stem of *stā-mus*, is a root. Moreover, most roots have a strong form and a weak form. Thus *stā* in *stā-s*, *stā-mus*, *stā-tis* is the strong form, and *sta* in *sta-tim*, *sta-tus* is the weak form of the same root.

321. Derivation forms new stems by adding formative suffixes to other stems or to roots. Thus from the root *sta*, it forms the stem *sta-bili* by adding the suffix *bili*, and from this again it forms the new stem *sta-bili-tāt* by adding the suffix *tāt*.

322. Etymologically words may be divided into groups, each group being derived from one common root. Some of these groups are very large. Thus from the two forms of the single root *stā*, *sta*, *to stand*, are derived

1. All the forms which make up the conjugation of the verb *stō*, *stāre*, *stetī*, *statum*, *to stand*.
2. All the forms of the verb *sistō*, *sistere*, *stitī*, *statum*, *to place*.
3. Many other forms, including nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

323. Stems, the basis of all inflection, may be divided into three classes, as follows:

1. Root Stems, identical with roots.
2. Primary Stems, formed either from roots or from the stems of verbs by means of suffixes.
3. Secondary Stems, formed from primary stems by means of suffixes.

324. Words formed by inflection are called

1. Root Words or Primitive Words, if formed from root stems: *duc-is*, *of a leader*, root stem *duc*; *es-tis*, *you are*, root stem *es*.
2. Primary Derivatives, if formed from primary stems: *fac-tō-rum*, *of deeds*, from primary stem *fac-to*, from the root *fac*, seen in the verb *fac-iō*.
3. Secondary Derivatives, if formed from secondary stems: *sta-bili-tāt-is*, *of stead-fast-ness*, from the secondary stem *sta-bili-tāt*, from the primary stem *sta-bili*, from the weak root *sta*.

325. In the language inherited by the Romans, roots, stems, and suffixes sometimes appear with varying quantity, and even with different vowels in different words:

1. With varying quantity: root **reg** in *reg-ere*, but **rēg** in *rēx*; **leg** in *leg-ere*, but **lēg** in *lēx*.

2. With different vowels, with or without varying quantity: root **teg** in *teg-ere*, but **tog** in *tog-a*; **da** in *da-mus*, *da-tus*, but **dō** in *dō-num*.

326. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, while in the Latin they have mostly disappeared, as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.

1. In classical Latin the suffix **ter**, **tor**, in its several forms,

tr	ter	tēr	tor	tōr
in pa-tr-is	pa-ter	crā-tēr	vic-tor	vic-tōr-is

is the best illustration of this vowel gradation, called also Ablaut.

2. This suffix is an illustration of what is called the **E-Series** of vowel gradation or ablaut, though the forms **ter** and **tor** were not inherited, but were shortened by the Latin from **tēr** and **tōr**. The form **tr**, in which the vowel has disappeared, is said to have weak grade and is called a weak form, while **ter**, **tēr**, **tor**, **tōr** are said to have strong grade and are called strong forms. Moreover, **tēr** and **tōr** are sometimes distinguished from **ter** and **tor** as the stronger or extended forms.

3. In the examples given above (325) the roots **reg**, **rēg**; **leg**, **lēg**; **teg**, **tog**, all belong to the **E-Series**, but the root which appears as **da** in *da-mus*, *da-tus*, and as **dō** in *dō-num*, belongs to the **O-Series**.

I. ROOT WORDS—FORMED FROM ROOTS BY INFLECTION

327. The following are examples of Root Words:

1. FROM ROOTS OF THE WEAK GRADE OR WEAK FORM

Root duc :	<i>duc-is, of a leader</i>	<i>duc-e</i>	<i>duc-ibus</i>
da :	<i>da-re, to give</i>	<i>da-mus</i>	<i>da-tis</i>
s :	<i>s-um, I am</i>	<i>s-uinus</i>	<i>s-itis</i>

2. FROM ROOTS OF THE STRONG GRADE OR STRONG FORM

Root es :	<i>es-se, to be</i>	<i>es-t</i>	<i>es-tis</i>
stā :	<i>stā-s, you stand</i>	<i>stā-mus</i>	<i>stā-tis</i>
rēg :	<i>rēg-is, of the king</i>	<i>rēg-e</i>	<i>rēg-ibus</i>

II. PRIMARY DERIVATIVES

328. From the stems of verbs are formed Participles and Verbal Adjectives and Nouns with the following suffixes:

Nom.	ns	tus, a, um	tus	tūrus, a, um	ndus, a, um
Stem	nt, nti	to, tā	tu	tūro, tūrā	ndo, ndā

1. With the suffix **ns** are formed Present Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: **amā-ns**, *ama-nt-is*, *loving*; **innocē-ns**, *innocent*; **adulescē-ns**, *a youth*.

2. With the suffix **tus, a, um**, sometimes **sus, a, um**, are formed Perfect Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: **amā-tus**, *loved*; **al-tus**, *tall*, from *al-ere*, *to nourish*; **legā-tus**, *envoy*, from *legā-re*, *to commission*; **fos-sa** (from *fod-ta*), *trench*, from *fod-ere*, *to dig*.

NOTE 1. — The suffix **tus, a, um** is also used in forming Secondary Derivatives; see 343.

NOTE 2. — The suffix **nus, a, um** is sometimes used in the sense of **tus, a, um**: **plē-nus**, *full*, from **plē-re**, *to fill*; **dō-num**, *gift*, from **dō**, *da-re*, *to give*.

3. With the suffix **tus**, stem **tu**, are formed Supines and other Verbal Nouns: **amā-tum**, **amā-tū**; **audī-tus**, *act of hearing*, from *audī-re*; **exercitus**, *training, army, trained men*, from *exercē-re*, *to train*.

NOTE. — For the use of **ā-tus** in forming Secondary Derivatives, see 344.

4. With the suffix **tūrus, a, um** are formed Future Active Participles, and Verbal Nouns in **tūra**: **amā-tūrus**; **cul-tūra**, *a cultivating*, from *col-ere*, *to cultivate*; **scrip-tūra**, *writing, written document*, from *scrib-ere*, *to write*.

5. With the suffix **ndus, a, um**, are formed Gerundives, Gerunds, and Gerundive Adjectives in **undus, bundus, and cundus** with the general meaning of participles, though they often denote a permanent characteristic: **ama-ndus**, **ama-ndī**, **ama-ndō**; **sec-undus**, *following*, from *sequ-i*, *to follow*; **vitā bundus**, *avoiding*, from *vitā-re*, *to avoid*; **fā-cundus**, *eloquent*, from *fā-ri*, *to speak*.

NOTE. — The suffix **us** has nearly the same meaning as **undus, bundus**, and **cundus**: **timī-dus**, *timid*, from *timē-re*, *to fear*.

329. Important Verbal Adjectives denoting Capability, Adaptation, generally passive but sometimes active, are formed with the suffixes

ilis and bilis,		stems, ili and bili :	
fac-ilis,	<i>facile, easy,</i>	from fac-ere,	<i>to make</i>
ūt-ilis,	<i>useful,</i>	“ ūt-i,	<i>to use</i>
amā-bilis,	<i>lovable,</i>	“ amā-re,	<i>to love</i>
laudā-bilis,	<i>praiseworthy,</i>	“ laudā-re,	<i>to praise</i>

1. With these suffixes adjectives are often derived from Perfect Participles:

duct-ilis,	<i>ductile,</i>	from duct-us,	<i>led, drawn out</i>
miss-ilis,	<i>capable of being sent,</i>	" miss-us,	<i>sent</i>
umbrât-ilis,	<i>living in the shade,</i>	" umbrât-us,	<i>shaded</i>
vis-i-bilis,	<i>visible,</i>	" vis-us,	<i>seen</i>

2. Some of these adjectives occasionally become nouns: **miss-ile**, a *missile*, from mitt-ere, *to send*.

3. From such examples as **duc-t-ilis**, **mis-s-ilis**, and **umbr-ât-ilis** seem to have been derived the suffixes **tilis**, **silis**, and **ât-ilis**, used in forming adjectives from nouns; see 352.

4. The stems **ili** and **bili** of **ilis** and **bilis** are derived from the stems **ulo** and **bulo** of **ulus** and **bulum**; see 331, 1, 335.

330. Verbal Adjectives with the general meaning of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	âx	icus	icus	ûcus	ius
Stem	âc, âci	ico	ico	ûco	io:
aud-âx,	<i>daring,</i>	from aud-êre,	<i>to dare</i>		
loqu-âx,	<i>loquacious,</i>	" loqu-i,	<i>to talk</i>		
med-icus,	<i>healing, medical,</i>	" med-êri,	<i>to heal</i>		
am-icus,	<i>loving, friendly,</i>	" am-âre,	<i>to love</i>		
cad-ûcus,	<i>falling, frail,</i>	" cad-ere,	<i>to fall</i>		
exim-ius,	<i>select, choice,</i>	" exim-ere,	<i>to select out</i>		

1. These suffixes are comparatively rare, except **âx**, which is a reduced form of **âcus**. It often denotes a faulty inclination. The suffixes **â-cus**, **i-cus**, **i-ous**, and **û-cus** are only different forms of a single suffix, produced by adding **cus**, to the stem-vowels **â**, **i**, **i**, and **û**.

2. A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: **med-icus**, a *physician*; **am-icus**, a *friend*.

331. Verbal Adjectives having in general a meaning kindred to that of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	ulus	uus	vus	ivus
Stem	ulo	uo	vo	ivo:
crêd-ulus,	<i>credulous,</i>	from crêd-ere,	<i>to believe</i>	
noc-uus,	<i>hurtful,</i>	" noc-êre,	<i>to hurt</i>	
ar-vus,	<i>plowed</i>	" ar-âre,	<i>to plow</i>	
cad-ivus,	<i>falling,</i>	" cad-ere,	<i>to fall</i>	

1. The suffix **ulus** generally denotes a faulty tendency. In verbal adjectives it often becomes **ilis**: **ag-ilis**, *agile*; see 329; **uus**, **vus**, and **i-vus** are only different forms of a single suffix.

2. The suffix **ivus** is often added to the stem of Perfect Participles, apparently making a new suffix, **t-ivus**: **cap-t-ivus**, *captive*, from **cap-ere**, **cap-to**, **cap-t**, *to take*; **āc-t-ivus**, *active*, from **ag-ere**, **āc-to**, **āc-t**, *to act*.

3. A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: **ar-vum**, *plowed land*, from **ar-āre**, *to plow*; **cap-t-ivus**, *a captive*.

4. The suffix **ivus**, **t-ivus** is also used in forming secondary derivatives; see 350.

Verbal Nouns

332. Verbal nouns partake largely of the meaning of the verbs from which they are derived. They may be classified as follows:

1. Verbal nouns denoting Action or its Result; see 333.
2. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action; see 334.
3. Verbal nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action; see 335.

Action or Its Result

333. Verbal nouns denoting Action in the abstract, but often becoming concrete, are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	iō ¹	tiō	or	us	ēs	iēs	ium
Stem	iōn	tiōn	ōr	os, es	ēs, i	iē	io :
leg-iō,	<i>a levying, legion, men levied,</i>			from leg-ere,			<i>to levy</i>
audi-tiō,	<i>a hearing, a report,</i>			" audi-re,			<i>to hear</i>
vi-siō, ²	<i>a seeing, a sight,</i>			" vid-ēre,			<i>to see</i>
tim-or,	<i>fear,</i>			" tim-ēre,			<i>to fear</i>
gen-us,	<i>birth,</i>			" gen in gign-ere,			<i>to bear</i>
frigus,	<i>cold,</i>			" frig-ere,			<i>to be cold</i>
sēd-ēs,	<i>seat,</i>			" sed-ēre,			<i>to sit</i>
fac-iēs,	<i>face,</i>			" fac-ere,			<i>to make</i>
gaud-ium,	<i>joy,</i>			" gaud-ēre,			<i>to rejoice</i>

1. Most of these suffixes generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but **ēs**, **iēs**, and **ium** sometimes designate the result of the action or the means employed: **aedific-ium**, *edifice*, from **aedific-āre**, *to build*; **nūb-ēs**, *cloud*, from **nūb-ere**, *to veil*.

¹ The suffix **iō** is compounded of **i** and **ōn**; **tiō** of **ti** and **ōn**.

² **Vi-siō** is from **vid-tiō**; see 52, 1.

2. Here belongs the Latin Infinitive in **ere**, which is the Locative of a verbal noun, like **genus**, **gen-eris**, **gen-ere**. Observe that the Ablative ending **ere**, which includes the Locative meaning, is the same as that of the Infinitive.

3. For the suffixes **tus** and **tūra**, see 328, 3 and 4.

Agent or Doer

334. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the suffixes

Nom. Stem	tor tōr	ter, masculine ter, tr	tr-ix, feminine tr-ic:
vēnā-tor, vēnā-tr-ix,	<i>hun-ter</i> , ¹ <i>hun-tr-ess</i> , ¹	} from vēnā-rī,	<i>to hunt</i>
gubernā-tor, gubernā-tr-ix,	<i>direc-tor</i> , <i>direc-tr-ess</i> ,		
audi-tor,	<i>hearer</i> ,	} “	gubernā-re, <i>to steer, direct</i> audi-re, <i>to hear</i>
tōn-sor, ² tōns-trix,	<i>barber</i> , <i>female barber</i> ,		
		“	tond-ere, <i>to clip, shave</i>

1. The few nouns in Latin formed with the suffixes **ter**, **tr**, which, like **tor**, originally denoted the Agent, have become Names of Kindred: **pa-ter**, **pa-tr-is**, *father*; **mā-ter**, **mā-tr-is**, *mother*; **frā-ter**, **frā-tr-is**, *brother*.

2. The suffix **tr** in **pa-tr-is**, **ter** in **pa-ter**, **tor** in **vic-tor**, and **tōr** in **vic-tōr-is**, are only different forms of the same suffix. For vowel gradation or ablaut, as illustrated in these forms, see 21, 326, 1

3. The feminine suffix **trix** for **tr-ics** is an extension of **tr**, the weak form of **tor**, by the addition of **ic-s**, of which **i** is the inherited feminine suffix and **s** the Nominative suffix.

4. The suffix **tor**, though originally a primary suffix, is sometimes used to form denominatives: **viā-tor**, *a traveler*, from **via**, *a way*; **sen-ā-tor**, *a senator*, from **sen-ex**, *an old man*.

5. The suffix **tor**, **sor**, is often extended to **tōr-ius**, **sōr-ius** by the addition of **ius**; see 350, 2.

6. A few nouns in **a**, **ō** (Gen. **ōn-is**), **us**, and **ulus** have a meaning kindred to that of Agent or Doer: **scrib-a**, *a writer*, from **scrib-ere**, *to write*; **err-ō**, **err-ōn-is**, *a wanderer*, from **err-āre**, *to wander*; **coqu-us**, *a cook*, from **coqu-ere**, *to cook*; **leg-ulus**, *a collector*, from **leg-ere**, *to collect*.

¹ Observe that **ter** and **tor** in *hun-ter* and *direc-tor* are used, as in Latin, to denote the agent or doer, and that in the feminine forms *hun-tr-ess* and *direc-tr-ess* they both take the weak form **tr**, as in the Latin *vēnā-tr-ix*.

² **Tōn-sor** is for **tond-tr**, **dt** changed to **s**, but **tōns-trix** is for **tond-trix**, **dt** changed to **st** before **r**; see 52, 1.

ETYMOLOGY

Means and Instrument

335. Nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action, sometimes its Place or Result, are formed with the suffixes

trum ulum	s-trum ¹ ula	clum brum	culum bra	cula bulum	crum bula: ²
arā-trum,	<i>plow,</i>		from arā-re,	<i>to plow</i>	
rōs-trum,	<i>beak,</i>		" rōd-ere,	<i>to gnaw</i>	
mōn-s-trum, ¹	<i>prodigy,</i>		" mon-ēre,	<i>to admonish</i>	
perī-clum, ³	<i>trial, test, peril,</i>		" obsolete perī-re,	<i>to try, test</i>	
perī-culum,					
indū-cula,	<i>tunic,</i>		" indu-ere,	<i>to clothe with</i>	
simulā-crum,	<i>image,</i>		" simulā-re,	<i>to represent</i>	
teg-ulum,	<i>covering, tile, roof,</i>		" teg-ere,	<i>to cover</i>	
teg-ula,					
dēlū-brum,	<i>shrine,</i>		" dēlu-ere,	<i>to cleanse</i>	
dolā-bra,	<i>ax, mattock,</i>		" dolā-re,	<i>to hew, cut</i>	
sta-bulum,	<i>stall,</i>		" stā-re,	<i>to stand</i>	
fā-bula,	<i>story, tale,</i>		" fā-rī,	<i>to speak, tell</i>	

336. Many verbal nouns denoting the Means of an action, or its involuntary Subject or Object, and sometimes the Act itself or its Result, are formed with the suffixes

men	mentum	mō (stem mōn)	mōnium	mōnia:
flū-men,		<i>stream,⁴</i>	from flu-ere,	<i>to flow</i>
ag-men,		<i>army on the march,⁴</i>	" ag-ere,	<i>to lead</i>
ōrnā-mentum,		<i>ornament,</i>	" ōrnā-re,	<i>to adorn</i>
docu-mentum, ⁵		<i>documentary proof,</i>	" doc-ēre,	<i>to teach</i>
ser-inō, ser-mōn-is,		<i>connected discourse,</i>	" ser-ere,	<i>to connect</i>
ali-mōnia, ⁵	<i>nourishment,</i>		" ale-re, ⁵	<i>to nourish</i>
ali-mōnium,				

¹ The suffix **s-trum** may have derived its **s** from such words as **ca-s-trum**, **rā-s-trum**, and **rō-s-trum**, in which **s** belongs to the root or stem.

² **Cula**, **ula**, **bra**, and **bula** differ from the corresponding forms in **um** only in gender; **clum**, **culum**, and **crum** are only different forms of a single suffix, as are also **brum** and **bulum**.

³ In Latin the form **culum** has almost entirely displaced the older form **clum**.

⁴ **Flū-men**, *stream*, that which flows; **ag-men**, *army on the march*, that which is led.

⁵ The **u** in **docu-mentum**, the **i** in **ali-mōnia**, and the **e** in **ale-re** are only different forms of the thematic vowel.

1. But the suffixes **mōnium** and **mōnia**, though originally used only in forming verbal nouns, were subsequently employed with great freedom in forming nouns from adjectives, or other nouns; see **344, 345**.

2. In early Latin **men** was a favorite suffix for the formation of verbal nouns, but it was subsequently extended to **men-tum** by the addition of **tum**; **mōn**, the strong-grade form of **men**, was also extended to **mōn-ia** and **mōn-ium**, by adding **ia** and **ium**.

337. A few verbal nouns are formed with the suffixes

d-ō ¹	g-ō	stems d-ōn	d-in	g-ōn	g-in :
torpē-dō,	<i>numbness,</i>	from torpē-re,			<i>to be numb</i>
cupī-dō,	<i>desire,</i>	" cupī in cupī-vī,			<i>I desired</i>
vorā-gō,	<i>whirlpool,</i>	" v-rā-re,			<i>to swallow up</i>
orī-gō,	<i>a beginning,</i>	" orī-ī,			<i>to rise, begin</i>

338. Nouns having a great variety of meaning, as Action, its Result or Place, Means or Instrument, etc., are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the simple suffixes

a	us, um	us	stems ā	o	u :
fug-a,	<i>a fleeing, flight,</i>	from fug in fug-ere.			<i>to flee</i>
tog-a,	<i>gown, toga,</i>	" tog, teg, in teg-ere,			<i>to cover</i>
lūd-us,	<i>game, play,</i>	" lūd in lūd-ere,			<i>to play</i>
iug-um,	<i>yoke,</i>	" iug in iug-ere,			<i>to join together</i>
ac-us,	<i>needle,</i>	" ac in ac-uere,			<i>to sharpen</i>

1. For nouns in **a** and **us** denoting the Agent or Doer, see **334, 6**.

III. SECONDARY DERIVATIVES—NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

339. Secondary derivatives, nouns and adjectives, may be classified as follows:

1. Diminutives; see **340**.
2. Patronymics, or Names of Descent; see **342**.
3. Designations of Place; see **343**.
4. Nouns denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic; see **344**.
5. Adjectives denoting Fullness or Supply; see **346**.
6. Adjectives denoting Material; see **347**.
7. Adjectives denoting Characteristic or Possession; see **348**.

¹ The suffix **dō** may have derived its **d** from words like **card-ō** in which **d** belongs to the root.

Diminutives — Nouns and Adjectives

340. Diminutives of Nouns and Adjectives are generally formed with the following suffixes:

lus, la, lum	ulus, ula, ulum	culus, cula, culum
filio-lus,	<i>little son,</i>	from filius, <i>son</i>
filio-la,	<i>little daughter,</i>	" filia, <i>daughter</i>
atrio-lum,	<i>small hall,</i>	" atrium, <i>hall</i>
hortu-lus,	<i>small garden,</i>	" hortus, <i>garden</i>
oppidu-lum,	<i>small town,</i>	" oppidum, <i>town</i>
rēg-ulus,	<i>petty king,</i>	" rēx, <i>king</i>
capit-ulum,	<i>small head,</i>	" caput, <i>head</i>
flōs-culus,	<i>small flower,</i>	" flōs, <i>flower</i>
diē-cula,	<i>little day, little while,</i>	" diēs, <i>day</i>
mūnus-culum,	<i>small present,</i>	" mūnus, <i>present</i>
agel-lus, ¹	<i>small field,</i>	" ager, <i>field</i>
libel-lus,	<i>small book,</i>	" liber, <i>book</i>
vil-lum, ²	<i>a little wine,</i>	" vinum, <i>wine</i>
aurco-lus, a, um,	<i>somewhat golden,</i>	" aureus, <i>golden</i>
longu-lus, a, um,	<i>rather long,</i>	" longus, <i>long</i>
pauper-culus, a, um,	<i>rather poor,</i>	" pauper, <i>poor</i>
longius-culus, a, um, ³	<i>rather too long,</i>	" longius, <i>too long</i>
misel-lus, a, um,	<i>somewhat unfortunate,</i>	" miser, <i>unfortunate</i>

1. **Lus, la, lum** are appended to **ā** and **o**-stems; **ulus, ula, ulum** to dental and guttural stems; **culus, cula, culum** to **e**-, **i**-, and **u**-stems and to liquid and **s**-stems; see examples.

2. Before **lus, la, lum**, the stem vowels **ā** and **o** take the form of **o** after **e** or **i**, and the form of **u** in other situations: **filio-lus, filio-la, hortu-lus**.

3. Before **culus, cula, culum**, stems in **u** change **u** into **i**, and stems in **on** change **o** into **u**: **versi-culus, a little verse**; **homun-culus, a small man**. Like nouns in **on**, a few other words form diminutives in **un-culus, un-cula**, though probably from an old stem in **on**: **av-unculus, maternal uncle**, from **avus, grandfather**.

4. In Latin the diminutive suffix was originally **lus, la, lum**, from which was developed the form **u-lus, u-la, u-lum** by including as a part of the suffix the **u** in such words as **hort-u-lus, oppid-u-lum**, where it represents the

¹ **Agel-lus** is from **agr(o)-lo-s**, which became **agr-lo-s, ager-lo-s**, and finally **agel-lus**.

² **Vil-lum** is from **vin(o)-lo-m**, which became **vin-lom** and then **vil-lum**.

³ The suffix **cu lus** is often thus attached to the neuter of comparatives.

stem vowel of the primitive; *cu-lus* was produced by adding the diminutive *lus* to the suffix *co*: *co-lus*, *cu-lus*.

5. A few diminutives are formed with the suffixes *iō*, *u-iō*:¹ *pūs-iō*, *pūs-iōn-is*, a *little boy*, from *pūsus*, *boy*; *homun-ciō*, *homun-ciōn-is*, a *little man*, from *homō*, *man*.

341. Diminutive nouns in their true and proper signification represent objects simply as small, but they are often so used as to take on secondary meanings. Thus they sometimes become

1. Terms of Endearment. Thus *fiuola* may mean either *little daughter* or *my dear little daughter*.

2. Expressions of Sympathy or Regard. Thus *homunculus* may mean either a *small man* or a *poor unhappy man*.

3. Expressions of Contempt. Thus *calicula* may mean either a *small dog* or a *contemptible little cur*.

Patronymics

342. The Latin Patronymics, or Names of Descent, were borrowed from the Greek. The common patronymic ending was developed for metrical reasons in two forms, as follows:

Nom.	idēs	iadēs , masculine	is	ias , feminine
Stem	idā	iadā	id	iad

Tantal-idēs, son or descendant of Tantal-us

Thest-iadēs, son or descendant of Thest-ius

Lāert-iadēs, son of Lāert-es, viz. Ulysses

Tantal-is, daughter or descendant of Tantal-us

Thest-ias, daughter or descendant of Thest-ius

1. In these examples observe that **idēs** and **is** are used after a short syllable and **iadēs** and **ias** after a long syllable.

2. By the union of **idēs** with a preceding vowel was developed the ending **idēs**: **Thēs-idēs**, son or descendant of Thes-eus.

3. By the loss of **i** in **iadēs** was formed the ending **adēs**: **Aene-adēs**, son or descendant of Aene-as.

4. Nouns in **eus** generally form feminine patronymics in **ēs** or **inē**; nouns in **us** sometimes form them in **inē**, and nouns in **ius** in **iōnē**: **Nēr-ēs** or **Nēr-inē**, daughter of Ner-eus; **Neptūn-inē**, daughter or descendant of Neptune; **Acris-iōnē**, daughter of Acris-ius.

¹ The suffix **ci-ō** is compounded of the two diminutive suffixes **co** and **iō**, a formation quite analogous to that of *cu-lus*.

343. Designations of Place, where trees and plants flourish, are often formed with the suffixes **tum** and **-tum**:

virgul-tum,	thicket,	from virgul-a,	bush
salic-tum,	thicket of willows,	" salic-s (cs = x),	willow
pīn-ē-tum,	pine forest,	" pīn-us,	pine tree
ros-ē-tum,	garden of roses,	" ros-a,	rose bush

1. The suffix **tum** is the neuter of the participial suffix **tus** applied to nouns; see 328, 2; thus **virgul-tum** is the neuter of the adjective **virgul-tus**, used as a substantive; **-tum** is another form of the same suffix. The **ē** was probably developed in such words as **ol-ē-tum**, an olive garden, from **ol-ē-re**, from which it derives its **ē**. Thus **ros-ē-tum** means literally a place furnished with roses.

344. Derivatives denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic are formed from nouns with the suffixes

Nom.	ium	mōnium	tās	tūs	tūdō	ātus
Stem	io	mōnio	tāt	tūt	tūdin	ātu:
magister-ium,	office of master,		from magister,			master
testi-mōnium,	testimony,		" testi-s,			witness
patr-i-mōnium, ¹	paternal estate,		" patr-is,			of a father
civ-i-tās,	citizenship,		" civi-s,			citizen
auctōr-i-tās, ¹	authority,		" auctor,			author
servi-tūs, ²	servitude,		" servu-s,			servant
servi-tūdō, ²	servitude,		" servu-s,			servant
cōsul-ātus	consulship,		" cōsul,			consul

1. Derivatives in **ium**, **tūs**, and **ātus** sometimes become collective nouns: **collēgium**, a body of colleagues, from **collēga**, a colleague; **iuventūs**, youth, young persons; **sen-ātus**, senate, an assembly of old men. Many derivatives in **tās** are abstract nouns; see 345. **A**

2. The final vowel of the stem disappears before **ium** but assumes the form of **i** before the other suffixes. Consonant stems sometimes assume **i** in imitation of vowel stems.

3. The suffixes **ium**, **tās**, and **tūs** were all inherited; **tūdō** is closely related to **tūs**; **-ātus** is the ending of nouns in **tus** derived from **-ā**-verbs, as seen in **ōm-ā-tus**. For **mōnium**, see 336, 2.

4. The endings **-āgō** and **-īgō** occur in a few words: **vir-āgō**, a masculine maiden, from **vir**; **rōb-īgō**, rust, from **rōb-us**, red.

¹ Observe that **patr-i-mōnium** and **auctōr-i-tās** assume **i** in imitation of **test-i-mōnium** and **civ-i-tās** in which the **i** belongs to the stem.

² Observe that the stem vowel **o** of **serv-us** becomes **i** in **serv-i-tūs** and **serv-i-tūdō**.

345. Many Abstract Nouns are formed from adjectives, and a few from nouns, with the suffixes

ia	iēs	tia	tiēs	tās	tūdō	mōnia :
audāc-ia,		boldness,		from audāx,		bold
sapient-ia,		wisdom,		" sapiēns,		wise
victōr-ia,		victory,		" victor,		conqueror
barbar-ia,	}	barbarism,		" barbar-us,		foreign, barbarous
barbar-iēs,						
amic-tia,		friendship,		" amicu-s,		friendly, friend
molli-tia,	}	softness,		" molli-s,		soft
molli-tiēs,						
boni-tās,		goodness,		" bonu-s,		good
liber-tās,		freedom,		" liber,		free
pie-tās,		filial piety,		" pie in piu-s,		dutiful, pious
firmi-tās,	}	firmness,		" firmu-s,		steadfast, firm
firmi-tūdo,						
ācri-mōnia,		sharpness,		" ācri-s,		sharp

1. The suffixes **ia**, **iēs**, were inherited; **t-ia**, **t-iēs** were formed by adding **ia**, **iēs** to **t**-stems, as **sapient-ia**, **sapien-tia**.

2. The stem vowel **o** disappears before **ia**, **iēs**; is changed to **i** before **tia**, **tiēs**, and generally before the other suffixes, but it sometimes disappears, as in **liber-tās**; after **i** it retains its ablaut form **e**, as in **pie-tās**.

Adjectives from the Stems of Nouns

346. Fullness. — Adjectives denoting Fullness, Abundance, or Supply are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes

ōsus	lēns	lentus	tus	ā-tus	i-tus	ū-tus :
anim-ōsus,		full of courage,	from anim-us,			courage
ann-ōsus,		full of years,	" ann-us,			year
frūctu-ōsus,		fruitful,	" frūctu-s,			fruit
pesti-lēns,	}	pestilential,		" pesti-s,		pest
pesti-lentus,						
vīno-lentus,		full of wine,	" vīnu-m,			wine
vī-o-lēns,	}	impetuous,		" vī-s,		force
vī-o-lentus,						
lūc-u-lentus,		full of light,	" lūc in lūx,			light
iūs-tus,		just,	" iūs,			right
āl-ā-tus,		winged,	" āl-a,			wing
turr-i-tus,		turreted,	" turr-is,			turret
corn-ū-tus,		horned,	" corn-u,			horn

1. The suffix **ōsus** is one of the most important in the Latin language; the number of adjectives formed with it has been estimated to amount to eight hundred.

2. The suffix **ōsus** becomes **i-ōsus** by assuming **i** from some word like **stud-i-ōsus**, *studious*, and it becomes **u-ōsus** by assuming **u** from some word like **fruct-u-ōsus**, *fruitful*.

3. The suffixes **tus**, **ā-tus**, **i-tus**, and **ū-tus** are the regular participial endings here applied to the formation of adjectives from nouns.

347. Material. — Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made are generally formed with the suffixes

eus	nus	n-eus ¹	āc-eus	ic-ius :
aur-eus,	<i>of gold, golden,</i>	from aur-um, ²	<i>gold</i>	
argent-eus,	<i>of silver,</i>	" argent-um,	<i>silver</i>	
fāgi-nus,	<i>of beech, beechen,</i>	" fāg-us, ²	<i>a beech tree</i>	
fāgi-neus,				
ros-eus,	<i>made of roses,</i>	" ros-a,	<i>a rose</i>	
ros-āc-eus,				
strāment-ic-ius,	<i>made of straw,</i>	" strāment-um,	<i>a straw</i>	

1. Most of these suffixes sometimes take on a more general meaning and denote characteristic or possession; **pater-nus**, *paternal*; **vēr-nus**, *of spring, vernal*; **virgin-eus**, *maidenly*.

348. Characteristic. — Adjectives meaning in general *belonging to, relating to, derived from*, and the like, are formed from nouns with a great variety of suffixes. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of one class of these suffixes, viz.:

ālis	ēlis	ilis	ūlis	āris	ārius :
vīt-ālis,	<i>of life, vital,</i>	from vīt-a,	<i>life</i>		
mort-ālis,	<i>mortal,</i>	" mors, mort-is,	<i>death</i>		
fid-ēlis,	<i>faithful,</i>	" fid-ēs,	<i>faith, trust</i>		
patru-ēlis,	<i>of an uncle,</i>	" patru-us,	<i>uncle</i>		
civ-ilis,	<i>civil,</i>	" civ-is,	<i>citizen</i>		
vir-ilis,	<i>manly,</i>	" vir,	<i>man</i>		
curr-ūlis,	<i>of a chariot, curule,</i>	" curr-us,	<i>a chariot</i>		
salūt-āris,	<i>healthful,</i>	" salūt-is,	<i>good health</i>		
statu-ārius,	<i>pertaining to statues.</i>	" statu-a,	<i>statue</i>		

¹ The compound suffix **n-eus** is formed by adding **eus** to **no**, the stem of **nus**; **āc-eus** by adding **eus** to **āc**, the stem of **āx**, and **ic-ius** by adding **ius** = **eus** to **ico**, the stem of **icus**; see 350.

² Observe that the stem vowel is dropped before a vowel, but changed to **i** before a consonant.

1. These several suffixes are only different varieties of *lis*; the long vowels have been assumed from the stems to which the suffix has been added. Thus the *ā* in *vītā-lis* may be the stem vowel *ā* of *vīta*, but in *mort-ālis* it belongs to the suffix; the *ē* in *fidē-lis* is the stem vowel of *fid-ēs*, but in *patru-ālis* it belongs to the suffix.

2. By dissimilation *ālis* becomes *āris* after *l*, as in *salūt-āris*; *ārius* is an extension of *āris*.

3. Adjectives formed with these suffixes often become nouns, especially those in *ārius*, *ārium*, *ālis*, and *ile*: *statu-ārius*, a statuary; *libr-ārium*, a bookcase, from *liber*, a book; *mort-ālis*, a mortal, a human being; *ov-ile*, a sheepfold, from *ov-is*, a sheep.

349. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

nus	ā-nus	ē-nus	i-nus	ci-nus
er-nus	t-er-nus	ur-nus	t-ur-nus	
in the formation of adjectives:				
vēr-nus,	of spring, vernal,	from vēr,		spring
urb-ānus,	of a city,	" urb-s,		city
terr-ēnus,	of the earth, earthy,	" terr-a,		the earth
mar-inus,	of the sea, marine,	" mar-e,		the sea
vāti-cinus,	prophetical,	" vātē-s, vāti-s,		prophet
acer-nus,	of maple,	" acer,		maple
hodi-ernus,	of this day,	" hodi-ē,		this day, to-day
pater-nus,	of a father, paternal,	" pater,		father
hes-ternus,	of yesterday,	" her-I for hes-i,		yesterday
ebur-nus,	of ivory,	" ebur,		ivory
noct-ur-nus,	by night, nightly,	" nox, noct-is,		night
diū-urnus,	lasting,	" diū,		a long time

1. The basis of all these suffixes is *nus*; *ci-nus* is from *co-nus*; it adds *nus* to *co*, the stem of *cus*; see 350; *er-nus* and *ter-nus* follow the analogy of such words as *ac-er-nus* and *pa-ter-nus*, while *ur-nus* and *t-ur-nus* follow *eb-ur-nus* and *noc-t-ur-nus*.

2. The suffix *cinus* is sometimes extended to *cinus*: *vāti-cinus*, prophetic.

3. Many adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and some words thus formed are always nouns in classical Latin: *insul-ānus*, an islander, from *insul-a*; *urb-ānus*, a citizen, from *urb-s*; *rēg-īna*, a queen, from *rēx*, *rēg-is*; *medic-īna*, medicine, from *medi-cus*, a physician.

4. Here may be mentioned the kindred suffixes *ōnus*, *ōna*, *ūnus*, *ūna*: *patr-ōnus*, patron, from *pater*; *mātr-ōna*, matron, from *māter*; *trib-ūnus*, head of a tribe, tribune, from *tribus*, a tribe; *fort-ūna*, from *fortis*, chances.

350. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

cus i-cus t-icus ivus t-ivus ius cius i-cius i-cius ti-cius
in the formation of adjectives :

civi-cus,	<i>of a citizen,</i>	from civi-s,	<i>citizen</i>
bell-icus,	<i>of war, military,</i>	" bell-um,	<i>war</i>
cēnā-ticus,	<i>relating to dinner,</i>	" cēna,	<i>dinner</i>
fēst-ivus,	<i>pleasing,</i>	" fēst-us,	<i>festive</i>
tempes-tivus,	<i>timely,</i>	" tempus, tempes,	<i>time</i>
rēg-ius,	<i>kingly, royal,</i>	" rēx, rēg-is,	<i>king</i>
ōrā-tōr-ius,	<i>of an orator,</i>	" ōrā-tor,	<i>orator</i>
cēn-sōr-ius,	<i>of a censor,</i>	" cēn-sor,	<i>censor</i>
sodāli-cius,	<i>of a companion,</i>	" sodāli-s,	<i>companion</i>
patr-i-cius,	<i>patrician,</i>	" pater,	<i>father</i>
nov-i-cius,	<i>new, inexperienced,</i>	" nov-us,	<i>new</i>
dēdi-ti-cius,	<i>surrendered,</i>	" dēdi-tus,	<i>given up</i>

1. For **ivus** and **t-ivus**, see 331 and 331, 2.

2. The other suffixes are only different forms and combinations of **cus** and **ius**, both of which are in common use in kindred languages ; **t-icus** and **t-i-cius** obtain the **t** from participial stems ; **cius** is an extension of **cus** ; **ius** added to verbal nouns in **tor** and **sor** gives rise to the compound suffix, **tōr-ius**, **sōr-ius**, which may be applied directly to verb stems. Thus **ōrā-tōr-ius** is derived from the verb **ōrā-re** through the verbal noun, **ōrā-tor** ; see 334, 5.

3. A few adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and a few words thus formed are always used as nouns in classical Latin : **rūs-ticus**, *countryman, peasant*, from **rūs**, *the country* ; **patr-i-cius**, *patrician*, from **pater**, *father* ; **rēg-ia**, *royal palace*, from **rēx**, *king* ; **audī-tōr-ium**, *audience-room*, from **audī-tor**, *hearer*.

351. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

ter	tris	es-ter	es-tris	ēnsis
in the formation of adjectives :				
palūs-ter,	<i>marshy,</i>	from palūs,		<i>marsh</i>
eques-ter, }	<i>of a horseman,</i>	" eques,		<i>horseman</i>
eques-tris, }				
camp-ester,	<i>of a level field, level,</i>	" camp-us,		<i>level field</i>
silv-estris,	<i>of a forest, wooded,</i>	" silv-a,		<i>forest</i>
castr-ēnsis,	<i>of or in the camp,</i>	" castr-a,		<i>camp</i>

1. A few words formed from these suffixes are uniformly used as nouns, while a few others are occasionally so used: *palūs-tria*, *marshy places*, from *palūs*, *marsh*; *eques-ter*, *knight*, from *eques*, *horseman*.

2. The endings *ter*, *tris*, *es-ter*, and *es-tris* are different forms of the same suffix; the development of *es-ter* and *es-tris* from *ter* and *tris* is seen by comparing *eques-ter* and *eques-tris*, in which *es* belongs to the stem, with *camp-ester* and *silv-estris*, in which it is a part of the suffix; *ēnsis* is from **ent-ti-s*, in which *t-t* becomes *s*.

352. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

ilis *s-ilis*¹ *t-ilis*¹ *āt-ilis*¹ *ti-mus* *i-ti-mus*

in the formation of adjectives:

<i>hum-ilis</i> ,	<i>low, lovely,</i>	from	<i>Lam-us</i> ,	<i>the earth, ground</i>
<i>dap-s-ilis</i> ,	<i>sumptuous,</i>	"	<i>dap-s</i> ,	<i>feast</i>
<i>aquā-tilis</i> ,	<i>living in water,</i>	"	<i>aqua</i> ,	<i>water</i>
<i>sax-āt-ilis</i> ,	<i>living among rocks,</i>	"	<i>sax-um</i> ,	<i>rock</i>
<i>op-tinus</i> ,	<i>richest, best,</i>	"	<i>op-is</i> ,	<i>of wealth, help</i>
<i>mari-tinus</i> ,	<i>maritime,</i>	"	<i>mare for mari</i> ,	<i>sea</i>
<i>lēg-i-tinus</i> ,	<i>lawful,</i>	"	<i>lēx, lēg-is</i> ,	<i>law</i>

353. Adjectives from proper names generally end in

ānus, iānus, īnus *ās, aeus, ēus* *ius, iacus, icus* *ēnsis, iēnsis*:

<i>Sull-ānus</i> ,	<i>of Sulla,</i>	from	<i>Sulla</i> ,	<i>Sulla</i>
<i>Mari-ānus</i> ,	<i>of Marius,</i>	"	<i>Marius</i> ,	<i>Marius</i>
<i>Cicerōn-iānus</i> ,	<i>Ciceronian,</i>	"	<i>Cicerō</i> ,	<i>Cicero</i>
<i>Lat-īnus</i> ,	<i>Latin,</i>	"	<i>Latium</i> ,	<i>Latium</i>
<i>Fidēn-ās</i> ,	<i>of Fidenae,</i>	"	<i>Fidēnae</i> ,	<i>Fidenae</i>
<i>Smyrn-aeus</i> ,	<i>Smyranean,</i>	"	<i>Smyrna</i> ,	<i>Smyrna</i>
<i>Pŷthagor-ēus</i> ,	<i>Pythagorean,</i>	"	<i>Pŷthagorās</i> ,	<i>Pythagoras</i>
<i>Corinth-ius</i> ,	<i>Corinthian,</i>	"	<i>Corinthus</i> ,	<i>Corinth</i>
<i>Corinth-iacus</i> ,	<i>Corinthian,</i>	"	<i>Corinthus</i> ,	<i>Corinth</i>
<i>Britann-icus</i> ,	<i>British,</i>	"	<i>Britannus</i> ,	<i>a Briton</i>
<i>Cann-ēnsis</i> ,	<i>of Cannae,</i>	"	<i>Cannāe</i> ,	<i>Cannae</i>
<i>Athen-iēnsis</i> ,	<i>Athenian,</i>	"	<i>Athēnae</i> ,	<i>Athens</i>

1. *Ānus* and *iānus* are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

2. Many adjectives from names of places become Patrial Nouns in the plural and designate the citizens of those places: *Rōm-ānī*, the *Romans*, from *Rōm-a*; *Lat-inī*, the *Latins*, from *Lat-ium*.

¹ On these suffixes, see 329, 3.

354. The names of the Roman Gentes or Clans always ended in

ius, masculine, and **ia**, feminine :

Aemil- ius , Aemil- ia	App- ius , App- ia	Cass- ius , Cass- ia
Cornēl- ius , Cornēl- ia	Fab- ius , Fab- ia	Iūl- ius , Iūl- ia

1. These forms in **ius** and **ia** are often used as adjectives: **circus Flāmi-nius**, the *Flaminian circus*; **via Appia**, the *Appian way*.

2. Many of the names of the Roman gentes were derived from common nouns or from adjectives: **Virgin-ius**, **Virgin-ia**, from *virgō*, *maiden*; **Claud-ius**, **Claud-ia**, from *claud-us*, *lame*.

3. The name of the gens to which a Roman citizen belonged formed one of the three names which he regularly bore: the first, or **praenōmen**, designating the individual; the second, or **nōmen**, the **gēns**; and the third, or **cōgnōmen**, the family. Thus **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō** was **Publius** of the **Scipio** family of the **Cornelian** gens.

4. Many Roman family names, **cōgnōmina**, like the English surnames *Smith*, *Carpenter*, and *Green*, are derived from common nouns or adjectives: **Cornicen**, *Horn-blower*; **Figulus**, *Potter*; **Capit-ō**, *Big-head*; **Lupus**, *Wolf*; **Taurus**, *Bull*; **Niger**, *Black*.

5. Some personal names, **praenōmina**, are also derived from common nouns or adjectives: **Aulus**, *Flute*; **Mārcus**, *Hammer*; **Quīntus**, *Fifth*.

6. In writing, personal names are generally represented by abbreviations:

A. = Aulus	M. = Mārcus	S. (Sex.) = Sextus
Ap = Appius	M'. = Mānius	Ser. = Servius
C. = Gāius ¹	Mam. = Māmercus	Sp. = Spurius
Cn. = Gnaeus ¹	N. = Numerius	T. = Titus
D. = Decimus	P. = Pūblius	Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius
L. = Lūcius	Q. (Qu.) = Quīntus	

7. Sometimes an **agnōmen** or surname was added to the three regular names. Thus **Scīpiō** received the surname **Āfricānus** from his victories in Africa: **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus**.

8. An adopted son took the full name of his adoptive father, and an **agnōmen** in **ānus** formed from the name of his own **gēns**. Thus **Octāvius**, when adopted by Caesar, became **Gāius Iūlius Caesar Octāviānus**. Afterward the title of **Augustus** was conferred upon him, making his full name **Gāius Iūlius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus**.

9. Women were generally known by the name of their **gēns**. Thus the daughter of Iūlius Caesar was simply **Iūlia**; of Cornēlius Scīpiō, **Cornēlia**. Two daughters in any family of the Cornelian **gēns** would be known as **Cornēlia** and **Cornēlia Secunda** or **Minor**.

¹ On the use of C for G, see 5, 1 and 3.

Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions

355. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions with the following suffixes:

nus	ā-nus	ārius	er-nus	ter-nus	tur-nus	ti-nus
ter-nus,	three-fold,			from ter,	three times	
extr-āneus,	} from without, external,			“ extr-ā,	on the outside	
extr-ārius,						
hodi-ernus,	of this day,			“ hodi-ē,	this day, to-day	
hes-ternus,	of yesterday,			“ heri for hes-i,	yesterday	
diū-turnus,	} lasting,			“ diū,	a long time	
diū-tinus,						

DERIVATION AND HISTORY OF LATIN VERBS

356. The oldest Latin verbs were all inherited from the parent speech. They comprise three classes:

- I. Root Verbs, in which the bare root is the present stem.
- II. Thematic Verbs, in which the present stem ends in the thematic vowel.
- III. Verbs whose present stem is formed with the suffix *io*.

I. — Root Verbs

357. In Root Verbs personal endings are added directly to the bare root, which forms the present stem. This is the most primitive form of verbal inflection known in our family of languages, and has almost disappeared from the Latin. Only a few isolated forms of irregular verbs remain, of which the following are the most important:

1. From the root *es*, *to be*: *es* = *es-s*, *es-t*, *es-tis*, *es-te*, *es-tō*, *es-tōte*.
2. From the root *ēd*, *ēa*, *to eat*: *ē-s* = *ēd-s*, *ē-s-t*, *ē-s-tis*, *ē-s-te*, *ē-s-tō*, *ē-s-tōte*.
3. From the root *i*, *to go*: *i-s*, *i-t*, *i-mus*, *i-tis*, *i-te*, *i*, *i-tō*, *i-tōte*.
4. From the root *fer*, *to bear*: *fer-s*, *fer-t*, *fer-tis*, *fer-te*, *fer*, *fer-tō*, *fer-tōte*, with a few passive forms.
5. From the root *vel*, *vol*, *to wish*: *vol-t*, *vul-t*, *vol-tis*, *vul-tis*.
6. From the root *dō*, *da*, *to give*: *dō*, *dā-s* = *dō-s*, *da-t*, *da-mus*, *da-tis*, *da-nt*, *dā*, *da-te*, *da-tō*, *da-tōte*.

NOTE. — Many forms from these roots are thematic, as *s-u-m*, *s-u-mus*, *s-u-nt*, etc.

II. — Thematic Verbs

358. The Present Stem ends in the thematic vowel, which was originally *e* or *o*, but in Latin it generally takes the form of *i* or *u*. The personal endings are added to this vowel. This class includes most verbs of the Third Conjugation:

rēg-e-re, to rule; rēg-i-t, rēg-i-mus, rēg-i-tis, rēg-u-nt.

III. — Verbs formed with the suffix *io*

359. This class includes four sub-divisions:

1. A group of **A-Verbs**, in which the present stem ends in *o*, from *ā-io*, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in *ā* in the other persons:

hiā-re, to gape; present stem, hi-o, hi-ā: hi-ō,¹ hi-ā-mus, hi-ā-tis
lavā-re, to wash; “ “ lav-o, lav-ā: lav-ō, lav-ā-mus, lav-ā-tis

2. A group of **E-Verbs**, in which the present stem ends in *eo*, from *ē-io* or *e-io*, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in *ē* in the other persons:

favē-re, to favor; present stem, fav-eo, fav-ē: fav-eō,¹ fav-ē-mus, fav-ē-tis
vidē-re, to see; “ “ vid-eo, vid-ē: vid-eō, vid-ē-mus, vid-ē-tis

NOTE 1. — A few verbs formed with the suffix *e-iō* are causative in meaning: **mon-eō, mon-ē-re, to cause to remember**, from the root **men**, *remember*; **noc-eō, noc-ē-re, to cause to suffer**, from **nec**, *death, ruin*.

NOTE 2. — In Causative verbs, the root vowel *e* takes its ablaut form *o*; see 328. 3. Hence the root **men** becomes **mon** in **mon-eō**; **nec** becomes **noc** in **noc-eō**.

3. A group of **I-Verbs**, in which the present stem ends in *io*, from *i-io*, in the first person singular of the Present tense, in *iu* in the third person plural, and in *i* in the other persons:

venī-re, to come; pres. stem ven-io, ven-iu, ven-i: ven-iō, ven-i-mus, ven-iu-nt

NOTE. — In a few verbs in *iō*, the thematic vowel takes the place of *i*: **capere, to take: cap-iō, cap-i-mus, cap-i-tis, cap-iu-nt.**

4. Probably a very few **U-Verbs**, in which the present stem ends in *o*, from *io*, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in the thematic vowel in the other persons:

suere, to sew, su-ō, su-i-mus, su-i-tis, su-u-nt

¹ Observe that the first person singular of the Present has *ō*, but that its stem has *o*.

NOTE. — The four groups of inherited verbs just mentioned — viz. a group of **a**-verbs, or verbs of the First Conjugation, a group of **e**-verbs, or verbs of the Second Conjugation, a group of **i**-verbs, or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation, and a very few **u**-verbs of the Third Conjugation — served the Romans for all time as models for the formation of new verbs from the stems of nouns and adjectives. Thus all the Latin verbs were either inherited by the Romans or made by them on inherited models.

THE FORMATION OF VERBS FROM THE STEMS OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

360. A-Verbs are generally formed from **a**-stems, but sometimes from other vowel stems and even from consonant stems, especially from **n**- and **s**-stems:

cūr-ō,	-ā-re,	to care for,	from cūr-a,	care
lacrim-ō,	-ā-re,	to shed tears,	“ lacrim-a,	tear
numer-ō,	-ā-re,	to number,	“ numer-us,	number
lev-ō,	-ā-re,	to lighten,	“ lev-is,	light
aestu-ō,	-ā-re,	to rage,	“ aestu-s,	a raging
nōmin-ō,	-ā-re,	to name,	“ nōmen,	name
oner-ō,	-ā-re,	to burden,	“ onus, oner-is,	burden

361. E-Verbs are generally formed from **o**-stems,¹ rarely from consonant stems:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	to be white,	from alb-us,	white
claud-eō,	-ē-re,	to be lame,	“ claud-us,	lame
flōr-eō,	-ē-re,	to flower,	“ flōs, flōr-is,	flower
lūc-eō,	-ē-re,	to be light,	“ lūx, lūc-is,	light

1. **E-Verbs** are generally intransitive; indeed, from the same stem are sometimes formed an **a**-Verb with a transitive meaning and an **e**-Verb with an intransitive meaning:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	to be white,	} from alb-us,	white
alb-ō,	-ā-re,	to make white,		
clār-eō,	-ē-re,	to be bright,	} “ clār-us,	bright
clār-ō,	-ā-re,	to make bright,		

362. I-Verbs are generally formed from **i**-stems; but sometimes from **o**-stems, **u**-stems and consonant stems:

fin-iō,	fin-i-re,	to finish,	from fin-is,	end
lēn-iō,	lēn-i-re,	to make gentle,	“ lēn-is,	gentle

¹ Remember that **o**-stems have an ablaut form in **e**.

<i>serv-iō,</i>	<i>serv-i-re,</i>	<i>to serve,</i>	from <i>serv-us,</i>	<i>servant</i>
<i>gest-iō,</i>	<i>gest-i-re,</i>	<i>to gesture,</i>	" <i>gest-us,</i>	<i>gesture</i>
<i>cūstōd-iō,</i>	<i>cūstōd-i-re,</i>	<i>to guard,</i>	" <i>cūstōs,</i>	<i>guard</i>

363. U-Verbs are formed from u-stems :

<i>met-uō,</i>	<i>met-u-ere,</i>	<i>to fear,</i>	from <i>met-us,</i>	<i>fear</i>
<i>stat-uō,</i>	<i>stat-u-ere,</i>	<i>to place,</i>	" <i>stat-us,</i>	<i>position, place</i>

364. Frequentatives, or Intensives, denote Repeated, Continued, or Intense Action. They are of the First Conjugation, and are formed from verb stems or roots with the following suffixes :

	<i>tō</i>	<i>sō</i>	<i>itō</i>	<i>titō</i>	<i>sitō</i>
<i>cap-tō,</i>	<i>to snatch,</i>			from <i>cap-ere,</i>	<i>to take</i>
<i>da-tō,</i>	<i>to give frequently,</i>			" <i>da-re,</i>	<i>to give</i>
<i>cur-sō,</i>	<i>to run about,</i>			" <i>cur-rere,</i>	<i>to run</i>
<i>ag-itō,</i>	<i>to move violently,</i>			" <i>ag-ere,</i>	<i>to move, drive</i>
<i>scrip-titō,¹</i>	<i>to write often,</i>			" <i>scrib-ere,</i>	<i>to write</i>
<i>cur-sitō,</i>	<i>to run hither and thither,</i>			" <i>cur-rere,</i>	<i>to run</i>

1. Frequentatives were originally denominatives formed from the participle in *tus* or *sus*, but *itō* became an independent suffix and was added to the stems of verbs, regardless of the form of the participle ; hence *ag-itō*, not *āc-tō*. The extension of *to* or *so* by *itō* gives the compound suffix *titō* or *sitō*, but some verbs formed with these suffixes may be explained as derivatives from other frequentatives. Thus *cant-itō* may be formed from *cant-ō*, a frequentative from *can-ō* ; *curs-itō* from *curs-ō* from *cur-rō*.

2. A few Intensives of the Third Conjugation, denoting Eager rather than Repeated action, end in *essō*, rarely *issō* : *fac-essō*, *to do or perform eagerly*, from *fac-ere*, *to do, perform* ; *incip-issō*, *to begin eagerly*, from *incip-ere*, *to begin*.

365. Inceptives, or Inchoatives, denote the Beginning of the action. They are regularly formed from the present stem of verbs by adding *scō* :

<i>gelā-scō,</i>	<i>to begin to freeze,</i>	from <i>gelā-re,</i>	<i>to freeze</i>
<i>calē-scō,</i>	<i>to begin to be warm,</i>	" <i>calē-re,</i>	<i>to be warm</i>
<i>virē-scō,</i>	<i>to grow green,</i>	" <i>virē-re,</i>	<i>to be green</i>
<i>obdormi-scō,</i>	<i>to fall asleep,</i>	" <i>obdormi-re,</i>	<i>to sleep</i>

1. The endings *āscō*, *ēscō*, and *iscō*, including the stem vowel of the primitive, finally became independent suffixes, and were added to the stems of verbs and apparently to the stems of nouns without regard to the char-

¹ Remember that before *t*, *g* becomes *c* and *b* becomes *p* ; see 55, 1.

acter of the stem vowel: **trem-āscō**, **trem-iscō**, to begin to tremble, from **trem-ere**, to tremble; **puer-āscō**, to reach boyhood, from **puer**, a boy.

366. Desideratives, denoting a Desire to perform the action, end in **turiō** or **suriō**:

ēmp-turiō , ¹	to desire to purchase,	from em-ere ,	to purchase
scrip-turiō ,	to desire to write,	" scrib-ere ,	to write
ē-suriō , ²	to desire to eat,	" ed-ere ,	to eat

367. Diminutives, denoting a feeble action, end in **illō**:

cant-ill-ō ,	-āre,	to sing feebly,	from cant-āre ,	to sing
cōnscrib-ill-ō ,	-āre,	to scribble,	" cōnscrib-ere ,	to write

1. Diminutives in **illō** are probably formed from verb stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

368. Denominatives are also formed with the suffixes **icō** and **igō**:

medic-or ,	medic-ārī ,	to heal,	from medic-us ,	physician
claud-icō ,	claud-icāre ,	to be lame,	" laud-us ,	lame
rēmig-ō ,	remig-āre ,	to be an oarsman,	" rēmex ,	oarsman
mīt-igō ,	mīt-igāre ,	to make gentle,	" mīt-is ,	gentle

1. Observe that in **medic-or** the letters **ic** belong to the stem of **medic-us**, while in **claud-icō** they have become a part of the suffix **icō**; also that in **rēmig-ō** the letters **ig** belong to the stem of **rēmex**, while in **mīt-igō** they have become a part of the suffix **igō**.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS

369. Many compound words are formed by uniting two or more stems and adding the suffixes of inflection when needed. The stem vowel of the first member of the compound generally disappears before a vowel and generally takes the form of **i** before a consonant:

māgn-animus ,	from māgno-animo-s ,	magnanimous ,	o disappears
grand-aevus ,	" grandi-aevo-s ,	of great age ,	i disappears
omni-potēns ,	" omni-potent-s ,	omnipotent ,	i retained
corni-cen ,	" cornu-cen ,	trumpeter ,	u changed to i
capri-cornus ,	" capro-cornu-s ,	capri-corn .	o changed to i

¹ **Ēm-p-turiō**; **p** is generally thus developed between **m** and **t**; see 52, 5.

² **Ē-suriō**, from ***ēd-turiō**, from **ēd**, the strong form of the root of **ed-ō**; for euphonic changes, see 52, 1.

1. Consonant stems generally assume *i* before another consonant, as, **honôr-i-ficus**, *honorable*.

2. The ending of the second member is sometimes slightly changed, especially in compound adjectives, which regularly pass into the **I-Declension**: **multi-fôrm-is**, *with many forms*.

3. Compounds in **ex**,¹ **dex**, **fex**, **cen**, **cida**, and **cola** deserve notice: **rēm-ex**, *oarsman*; **ifi-dex**, *judge*; **arti-fex**, *artist*; **corni-cen**, *cornet-player*; **homi-cida**, *man-slayer*; **agri-cola**, *tiller of the soil*.

4. Note also compound adjectives in **ceps**,² **fer**, **ger**, **dicus**, **ficus**, and **volus**: **parti-ceps**, *taking part*; **auri-fer**, *bearing gold*; **armi-ger**, *carrying arms*, *armor-bearer*; **fâti-dicus**, *prophesying*; **mîri-ficus**, *causing wonder*; **bene-volus**, *well-wishing*.

370. Compound words are also formed by prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word with which it could not be used separately in the same sense:

Im-memor, *un-mindful*; **in-somnis**, *sleep-less*; **inter-rēgnum**, *an inter-regnum, the interval between two reigns*; **per-nox**, *lasting all night*; **per-facilis**, *very easy*; **ad-esse**, *to be present*; **ē-discere**, *to learn thoroughly*.

371. Compound words are also formed by uniting two or more words which already sustain to each other some syntactical relation:

Duo-decim, *twelve*; **Mârs-piter**, *father Mars*; **postri-diē**, *on the following day*; **quot-annis**, *yearly, on all years*; **māgn-opere** = *māgnō opere, greatly*; **dē-nuō** = *dē novō, a-new*.

1. In these examples observe that words, not stems, are united: **duo** and **decem**; **Mârs** and **pater**.

2. Compounds formed by the union of two or more words are sometimes called Syntactic Compounds. Many such were formed by the Romans during the classical period.

372. Compound Nouns and Adjectives may be divided according to their meaning into three classes:

1. Determinative Compounds, in which the second part is qualified by the first: **inter-rēx**, *interræx*; **bene-volus**, *well-wishing*; **per-māgnus**, *very great*; **in-dignus**, *unworthy*.

¹ **Ex** (ig-is), **dex** (dic-is), **fex** (fle-is), **cen**, **cida**, and **col-a** are derived from the verbal roots seen in **ag-ere**, *to drive*; **dic-ere**, *to tell*; **fac-ere**, *to make*; **can-ere**, *to sing, play*; **caed-ere**, *to slay*, and **col-ere**, *to cultivate*.

² **Cep-s**, **fer**, **ger**, **dic-us**, **fic-us**, and **vol-us** are from the roots of **cap-ere**, *to take*; **fer-re**, *to bear*; **ger-ere**, *to carry*; **dic-ere**, *to tell*; **fac-ere**, *to make*, and **vol-ō**, **vel-le**, *to wish*.

2. Objective Compounds, in which the second part is limited by the first as object: **prīn-ceps**, taking the first place; **belli-ger**, waging war, **homicīda**, one who slays a man; **agri-cola**, one who tills the field.

3. Possessive Compounds, generally best rendered by supplying *having* or *possessing*: **aēni-pēs**, having bronze feet;¹ **celeri-pēs**, swift-footed; **ālī-pēs**, wing-footed, having wings for feet; **māgn-anīmus**, having a great soul.

373. Compound Verbs. — Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs:²

Ab-ire, to go away;³ **ex-ire**, to go out;³ **prōd-ire**, to go forth; **con-vocāre**, to call together; **dē-cidere**, to fall off; **prae-dicere**, to foretell.

1. But a few compounds of **faciō** and **fiō** contain a verbal form in **e** or **ē**: **cale-facere**, to make warm; **cale-fieri**, to become warm; **cōnsue-facere**, to accustom.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds: **satis facere** or **satis-facere**, to satisfy, do enough for; **animum advertere** or **anim-advertere**, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in **ficō**, like the following, are probably best explained as denominatives: **aedi-ficāre**, to build, from **aedifex**; **ampli-ficāre**, to enlarge, from **amplificus**.

4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel changes in accordance with phonetic law; see 231.

374. Prepositions in Composition. — The following facts in regard to the Form and Meaning of prepositions in composition are added for reference:

1. **Ā, ab, abs.** Form: **a** before **m** and **v**, and before **f** in the verb **sum**; **abs** before **c**, **q**, **t**, and, with the loss of **b**, also before **p**; **ab** in other situations. Meaning: *away, off*: **ā-mittere**, to send away; **abs-condere**, to hide away; **ab-esse**, to be away; **ā-fui**, I have been away; **abs-portāre**, **as-portāre**, to carry off; in adjectives, generally negative: **ā-mēns**, without mind, frantic; **ab-similis**, un-like.

2. **Ad.** Form: generally unchanged, but **d** is assimilated before **c**, generally before **p** and **t**, and sometimes before **g**, **l**, **r**, and **s**, and generally dropped before **gn**, **sc**, **sp**, and **st**. Meaning: *to, toward, to one's self; on,*

¹ Observe the force of the compound. **Aēnus pēs** means a brazen foot, but **aēni-pēs** means having brazen feet.

² The words thus formed are strictly compounds of verbs with adverbs.

³ Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles **ab**, **ex**, etc., *away, out*, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliary to the case endings; see 312.

⁴ In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

at, near, in addition: **ad-dūcere**, to lead to; **ac-cipere**, to receive; **ad-gerere** or **ag-gerere**, to carry to; **a-spicere**, to look at; **ad-dīscere**, to learn in addition.

3. **Ante**. Form: unchanged except in **anti-cipāre**, to take before, and sometimes in composition with **stāre**. Meaning: *before, in preference to*: **ante-currere**, to run before; **ante-habēre**, to prefer.

4. **Circum**. Form: sometimes **circu** in composition with **eō, īre**. Meaning: *round, about*: **circum-mittere**, to send round; **circum-īre** or **circu-īre**, to go round.

5. **Com, con, co**. Form: **com** before **b, m, p**, and in **com-edere**, to eat up; **m** assimilated before **r** and sometimes before **l**; **co** before vowels, except in **com-edere**, before **h, gn**, and sometimes before **n**; **con** in other situations. Meaning: *together, with*, in various senses: **com-bibere**, to drink together; **co-īre**, to go together; **con-loquī, col-loquī**, to talk with or together; *completely, thoroughly*: **con-citāre**, to rouse thoroughly; **con-dēnsus**, very dense.

6. **E, ex**. Form: **ex** before vowels and before **c, h, p, q, s, t**, and with assimilation before **f**; **e** before the other consonants. Meaning: *out, forth, without, free from*: **ex-īre**, to go out or forth; **ex-sanguis**, without blood; *thoroughly, completely, successfully*: **ex-ūrere**, to burn up; **ef-ficere**, to do successfully; **ē-dūrus**, very hard.

7. **In**. Form: **n** is generally assimilated before **m**, often before **r** and sometimes before **l**, generally changed to **m** before **b** and **p**, otherwise unchanged. Meaning: *in, into, on, at, against*: **in-colere**, to dwell in; **in-ridēre** or **ir-ridēre**, to laugh at; **im-pūgnāre**, to fight against.

8. **Inter**. Form: unchanged, except in **intel-legere**, to understand. Meaning: *between, together*, sometimes involving interruption or ruin: **inter-venīre**, to come between; **inter-dīcere**, to forbid, *inter-dict*; **inter-īre**, to perish.

9. **Ob, obs**. Form: generally **ob**, but **b** is assimilated before **c, f, g**, and **p** and dropped in **o-mittere**, to omit; **obs** in **obs-olēscere**, to grow old, and with the loss of **b** in **os-tendere**, to display. Meaning: *before, in the way, against*: **of-ferre**, to bring before; **ob-stāre**, to stand in the way; **op-pūgnāre**, to fight against; *down, completely*: **oc-cidēre**, to cut down.

10. **Per**. Form: generally unchanged, but sometimes **r** is assimilated before **l** and dropped before **l** consonant in compounds of **iūrere**, as **periūrere, pēlerere**, to swear falsely. Meaning: *through, thoroughly*; sometimes with the idea of *breaking through, disregarding*: **per-legere** or **pel-legere**, to read through; **per-dīcere**, to learn thoroughly; **per-fidus**, perfidious, *breaking faith*.

11. **Post**. Form: generally unchanged. Meaning: *after, behind*: **post-habēre**, to place after, *esteem less*.

12. **Prōd, prō**. Form: generally **prō**, but **prōd**, the original form, is

retained in a few words before vowels. Meaning: *forth, forward, before, for*: **prōd-īre**, to go forth; **prōcurrere**, to run forward; **prō-pūgnāre**, to fight in front of, to fight for; **prō-hibēre**, to hold aloof, to prohibit.

13. **Sub, subs.** Form: generally **sub**, but **b** is assimilated before **c**, **f**, **g**, and **p**, and often before **m** and **r**. **B** is dropped before **sp**; **subs**, shortened to **sus** or **su**, occurs in a few words. Meaning: *under, down, from under, in place of, secretly, somewhat, slightly*: **sub-īre**, to go under; **sub-dūcere**, to draw from under, withdraw; **su-spicere**, to look up; **sus-cipere**, to undertake; **sub-stituere**, to substitute; **sub-ripere**, to take away secretly; **sub-difficilis**, somewhat difficult.

14. **Trāns.** Form: generally unchanged, but **trān** is the usual form before **s**, and **trā** is often used before **d**, **i** consonant, **l**, **m**, and **n**. Meaning: *across, through, completely*: **trāns currere**, to run across; **trāns-illire**, to leap across; **trā-dūcere**, to lead across; **trāns-igere**, to transact, finish.

375. The following inseparable Particles occur in composition:

1. **Ambi.** Form: generally **amb** before vowels and **am** before consonants, but **an** is used before **c**, **q**, and **f**. Meaning: *around, round, on both sides, in two directions*: **amb-īre**, to go round; **amb-igere**, to act in two ways, to hesitate; **am-putāre**, to cut round or off; **an-quirere**, to search round.

2. **Au:** away, from: **au-fugere**, to flee away.

3. **Dis, dī.** Form: **dis** before **p**, **q**, **t**, before **s** followed by a vowel, and sometimes before **i** consonant, but **s** is assimilated before **f** and changed to **r** before a vowel; **dī** in most other situations. Meaning: *apart, asunder, between, sometimes negative and sometimes intensive*: **dis-tinēre**, to hold apart; **dif-fugere**, to flee asunder; **dir-imere**, to take in pieces, destroy; **difficilis**, dif-ficult, not easy; **dī-laudāre**, to praise highly.

4. **In.** Form: **n** dropped before **gn**; otherwise like the preposition **in**. Meaning: *not, un-*: **ī-gnōscere**, not to know, to pardon; **im-memor**, un-mindful; **in-imicus**, un-friendly.

5. **Por.** Form: **r** assimilated before **l** and **s**. Meaning: *forth, before, near*: **pol-licēri**, to hold forth, promise; **pos-sidēre**, to sit near, possess; **por-rigere**, to hold forth, to offer.

6. **Red, re.** Form: **red** before vowels, before **h** and in **red-dere**; **re** in other situations. Meaning: *back, again, in return, sometimes not, un-*: **red-īre**, to go back; **re-ficere**, to repair, to make again; **re-signāre**, to unseal.

7. **Sēd, sē:** generally **sē**; apart, aside: **sē-cēdere**, to go apart, se-cede; **sēd-itiō**, a going apart, sedition.

8. **Vē:** not, without; **vē-sānus**, not sane; **vē-cors**, without heart, senseless.

PART IV.—SYNTAX

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

376. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

377. A sentence is a word, or a combination of words, expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.

1. A simple sentence expresses a single thought :

Rōmulus urbem condidit, Romulus founded the city.

2. A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences :

Ego régēs Elēci, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcētis, I have banished kings, introduce tyrants.

3. A Declarative Sentence has the form of an assertion :

Miltiadēs accūsātus est, Miltiades was accused.

4. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question :

Quis nōn paupertātem extimēscit, who does not fear poverty ?

5. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command or entreaty :

Liberā rem pūblicam metū, free the republic from fear.

6. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation :

Reliquit quōs virōs, what men he has left !

378. Simple Interrogative sentences are generally introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or by an interrogative particle, **ne**, **nōn-ne**, or **num** : **ne** asking for information ; **nōnne** generally implying an affirmative answer, and **num** a negative answer :

Quis doctior Aristotele fuit, who was more learned than Aristotle ? Quid tandem tē impedit, what, pray, hinders you ? Hōra quota est, what time is it ? Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we ? Estisne vōs legātī missī, were you sent as ambassadors ? Nōnne nobilitārī volunt, do they not wish to be renowned ? Num igitur peccāmus, are we then at fault ?

1. But questions in Latin, as in English, sometimes dispense with the interrogative word, especially in impassioned discourse :

Ego nōn poterō, *shall I not be able?* Vis rectē vivere, *do you wish to live rightly?*

2. The particle **ne** is regularly appended to the emphatic word of the sentence; appended to **nōn** it forms **nōn-ne**. It is, however, sometimes added to other interrogative words without affecting their meaning, as in **utrum-ne**, **quanta-ne**, etc.

3. An emphatic **tandem**, meaning *indeed*, *pray, then*, is often found in interrogative sentences, as in the second example.

4. **Nam** appended to an interrogative also adds emphasis, as in **ubinam** in the fourth example.

5. For two interrogatives in the same clause, and for an interrogative with **tantus**, see 511, 3 and 4.

379. Answers.—In replying to a question of fact the Latin usually repeats some emphatic word, or its equivalent, often with **prorsus**, **vērō**, and the like, or, if negative, with **nōn**:

Nempe negās, *do you indeed deny?* Prorsus negō, *certainly I deny;* C. Tusc. 5, 5. Possumusne esse tūti, *can we be safe?* Nōn possumus, *we can not;* C. Ph. 12, 12. Tuam vestem detrāxit tibi, *did he strip your garment from you?* Factum, *he did*, lit. *done* = it was done, 1. Eun. 707.

1. Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, **sānē**, **etiam**, **ita**, **vērō**, **certē**, etc.; negatively, **nōn**, **minimē**, etc.:

Visne sermōni dēmus operam sedentēs, *do you wish us to (that we should) attend to the conversation sitting?* Sānē quidem, *yes indeed;* C. Leg. 2, 1. Venitne, *has he come?* Nōn, *no;* Pl. Ps. 1067.

380. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alternative. The first clause generally has **utrum** or **ne**, or it omits the particle; the second generally has **an**, as follows:

utrum,	an,	} <i>whether, or</i>
ne,	an,	
—,	an,	

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, *is that your fault or ours?* Rōmanne veniō, an hic maneam, *am I going to Rome or am I to remain here?* Haec vērā, an falsa sunt, *are these things true or false?*

1. A negative in the second clause gives **an nōn**, very rarely **nec-ne**:

Isne est quem quaerō, an nōn, *is he the one whom I seek or not?* T. Ph. 352. Sunt haec tua verba, necne, *are these your words, or not?* C. Tusc. 3, 18.

2. In poetry and later prose the first clause may have **utrum-ne**, or **utrum . . . ne**, and the second **an**:

Utrumne persequemur otium, an, etc., shall we enjoy our leisure, or, etc.?
Utrum praedicemne, an taceam, shall I make it known, or be silent?

3. By the omission of the first clause, the second sometimes stands alone with **an** in the sense of *or*, and sometimes **an** is used to introduce interrogative sentences which do not seem to involve an ellipsis:

Quid ais, what do you say? An venit Pamphilus, or has Pamphilus come?

4. By the omission of the second clause, the first sometimes stands alone with **utrum**:

Utrum hoc bellum non est, is not this war? C. Ph. 8, 2, 7.

5. One or two rare forms occur in poetry, as **ne** . . . **ne**, in Vergil, and . . . **ne**, once in Horace:

Iustitiaene prius mirer belline, should I more admire your regard for justice or your martial deeds? V. 11, 126. *Maiora minorene fama, are they superior or inferior to their fame?* II. E. 1, 11.

6. Disjunctive, or Compound Questions, are sometimes extended to three or more members. Indeed Cicero, *Pro Domō*, 22, 57, has a question of this kind with eight members.

II. ELEMENTS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

381. The Simple Sentence, alike in its most simple and in its most expanded form, consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied, and of only two:

1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks.
2. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject.

382. The Simple or unmodified Subject may be a noun, a pronoun, expressed or implied, or some word or words used as a noun; and the Simple or unmodified Predicate may be either a verb alone or a suitable verb, generally **sum**, with a Predicate Noun or a Predicate Adjective:

Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies. Ego scribō, I write. Vicimus, we have conquered. Dolere malum est, to suffer is an evil. Vita cara est, life is dear.

1. In these examples observe that the subjects are **Cluilius**, **ego**, the pronoun implied in **vicimus**, the Infinitive **dolere** used as a noun, and **vita**. These subjects are all in the Nominative, according to **387**.

2. Observe that the predicates are **moritur**, **scribō**, **vicimus**, **malum est** and **cara est**. **Malum**, thus used, is called a Predicate Noun, and **cara** a Predicate Adjective.

383. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with one or more modifiers, generally an adjective, a noun in apposition, or a Genitive:

Albānus rēx moritur, the Alban king dies. Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Perūtīlēs Xenophōntis librī sunt, the books of Xenophon are very useful.

1. Observe that the complex subjects are **Albānus rēx**, **Cluilius rēx**, and **Xenophōntis librī**.

2. In distinction from a predicate noun, or a predicate adjective, any noun or adjective used simply as a modifier of the subject, or of any other noun, is called an **Attributive Noun or Adjective**.

3. A noun or pronoun, used to describe or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is said to be in **Apposition** with it and is called an **Appositive**: **Cluilius rēx**, *Cluilius the king*. Appositives therefore form one variety of attributive nouns.

384. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers. These may be objective modifiers, adverbial modifiers, or both:

Gloria virtūtem sequitur, glory follows merit. Sapientēs fēliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. In his castris Cluilius moritur, in this camp Cluilius dies. Vōns iter paene hostibus dedit, the bridge well-nigh offered a passage to the enemy.

1. Here observe that the modifier in the first example is the object **virtūtem**, in the second the adverb **fēliciter**, in the third the adverbial expression **in his castris**, and in the fourth the direct object **iter**, the indirect object **hostibus**, and the adverb **paene**.

2. All nouns may be modified like the subject; see **383**.

3. All adjectives may be modified by adverbs, and some adjectives may be modified by certain oblique cases:

Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Semper avidi laudis fuistis, you have always been desirous of praise. Habētis ducem memorem vestri, you have a leader mindful of you.

III. ELEMENTS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

385. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more independent sentences, combined without any change of form:

Sōl ruit et montēs umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Audendum est aliquid, aut omnia patiēda, something must be risked, or everything must be endured.

386. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more sentences so combined that one of them retains its independent form while the others are made subordinate to it:

Priusquam incipiās, cōsultō opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation.

1. In sentences of this kind the part which makes complete sense, — *cōnsultō opus est, there is need of deliberation*, — is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it, — *priusquam incipiās, before you begin*, — is called the Dependent or Subordinate Clause.

2. The subordinate clause may be the subject or the predicate of the compound sentence or the modifier either of the subject or of the predicate:

Quid diēs ferat,¹ incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse posse,¹ the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with them. Ego, qui te cōfirmō,¹ ipse me nōn possum, I who encourage you am unable to encourage myself. Zēnōnem, cum Athēns essem,¹ audiēbam, I heard Veno when I was at Athens.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE — RULES OF AGREEMENT

SUBJECT NOMINATIVE

387. Rule. — The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative:

Rōmulus rēgnāvit, Romulus reigned. Glōria virtūtem sequitur, glory follows merit. Ignorō quid agās, I do not know how you are. Ego rēgēs eieci, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants; Ad Her. 4, 58.

1. A Pronominal Subject is seldom expressed, as it is implied in the ending of the verb, as in the third example, but it may be expressed for emphasis or contrast, as in the last example.

2. For the different forms of the subject, see **382**.

3. The subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative; see **415**.

¹ In the first example, the clause *quid diēs ferat* is the subject: in the second, *sibi . . . posse* is the predicate; in the third, *qui . . . cōfirmō*, a modifier of the subject; and in the fourth, *cum . . . essem*, a modifier of the predicate.

AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH SUBJECT

388. Rule.—A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person:

Rōmulus urbem condidit, *Romulus founded the city.* Castor et Pollūx ex equis pūgnāre visi sunt, *Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback*; C. N. D. 2, 2. Scribam ad tē, *I shall write to you.*

1. Participles in compound tenses also agree with the subject in gender according to 394, 1, as in the second example.

2. For the pronominal subject implied in the verb, as in the last example, see 387, 1.

3. A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted by impersonal passive forms and by certain persons or the active, as the first and third person plural Indicative and Subjunctive and the second person singular Subjunctive, **dīcimus**, *we (people) say*; **dīcunt**, *they say*; **dīcās**, *you (any one) may say*:

Ad vesperum pūgnātum est, *they fought till evening.* Quae volumus, crēdimus, *we believe what we wish.* Agere quod agās cōsiderātē decet, *you should do considerably whatever you do*; C. Off. 1, 27.

4. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially **est** and **sunt** in proverbs and brief sayings:

Omnia praeclāra rāra, *all excellent things are rare*; C. Am. 21. Quot hominēs, tot sententiāe, *as many opinions as men*; T. Ph. 454. Ecce tuae litterae, *lo, your letter*; C. Att. 13, 16.

5. **Dīcō** and **faciō** are often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Pauca de mē, *a few words in regard to myself*; C. N. D. 2, 2. Quid opus est plūra, *what need of (saying) more*? C. Sen. 1, 3. Quae cum dixisset, Cotta finem, *having thus spoken (when he had thus spoken), Cotta closed (made an end)*; C. N. D. 3, 40.

6. **Faciō** is often omitted in Livy after **nihil aliud** (*amplius, minus, etc.*) **quam**, *nothing other (more, less, etc.) than, merely*; **nihil praeterquam**, *nothing except, merely*:

Nihil aliud quam steterunt parātī ad pūgnandum, *they merely stood prepared for battle*; L. 34, 46.

7. Certain brief forms of expression very often dispense with the verb: **quid**, *what*? **quid enim**, *what indeed*? **quid ergō**, *what then*? **quid quod**, *what of the fact that*? **nē plūra**, *not to say more*; **quid hōc ad mē**, *what is this to me*? **nihil ad rem**, *nothing to the subject*.

389. Synesis.—Sometimes, especially in poetry and in Livy, the predicate is construed according to the real meaning of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus

1. With collective nouns, *iuventūs*, *multitūdō*, *pars*, and the like. These, though singular in form, are often plural in sense :

Iuventūs ruit certantque, *the youth rush forth and contend*; V. 2, 68. *Multitūdō* abeunt, *the multitude depart*; L. 24, 3. *Magna pars* abeunt, *a large part withdraws*; S. 60, 8.

NOTE.—In the first example, observe that the former of the two verbs is in the singular and the latter in the plural, not an uncommon construction with collective nouns.

2. With *mīlia*, often masculine in sense :

Sex milia peditum mōre Macedonum armātī fuēre, *six thousand of the infantry were armed in the manner of Macedonians*; L. 37, 40.

3. With *quisque*, *uterque*, *alius . . . alium*, *alter . . . alterum*, and the like :

Uterque eōrum exercitum ēdūcunt, *each of them leads out his army*; Cæs. C. 3, 30. *Alius alium domōs suās invitāt*, *they invite each other to their homes*; S. 66, 3.

4. With a singular subject accompanied by an Ablative with *cum* :

Dux cum principibus capiuntur, *the leader with his chiefs is taken*; L. 21, 60.

5. With *partim . . . partim* in the sense of *pars . . . pars* :

Bonōrum partim necessariā sunt, *partim* nōn necessariā, *of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary*; C. Part. 24, 56.

6. Occasionally in poetry with a neuter pronoun or adjective limited by a Partitive Genitive :

Quid hūc tantum hominū (= tot hominēs) *incēdunt*, *why are so many men coming this way?* Pl. Poen. 619.

390. The verb agrees, not with its subject, but with the Predicate Noun, or with a noun after *quam*, *nisi*, etc., when that noun is nearer than the subject and when the subject is an Infinitive or a clause :

Nōn omnis error stultitia dicenda est, *not every error should be called folly*; C. Div. 2, 43. *Pueri Trōiānum dicitur agmen*, *the boys are called the Trojan band*; V. 5, 602. *Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesita est*, *nothing but peace was sought*; C. Off. 1, 28. *Contentum suis rēbus esse māximae sunt divitiæ*, *to be content with one's own is the greatest wealth*; C. Parad. 6, 3.

391. The verb often agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive, regularly when the appositive is **oppidum** :

Corinthus, Graeciae lūmen, extinctum est, *Corinth, the light of Greece, was extinguished*; C. Man. 5, 11. Volsinii, oppidum Tuscorum, concrematum est, *Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned*.

392. With two or more subjects, the verb may agree either with one subject and be understood with the others, or with all the subjects conjointly :

Homērus fuit et Hēsiodus ante Rōmam conditam, *Homer and Hesiod lived before the founding of Rome*; C. Tusc. 1, 1, 3. Aut mōrēs spectārī aut fortūna solet, *either character or fortune is wont to be regarded*. Pompēius, Lentulus, Scipiō perierunt, *Pompey, Lentulus, and Scipio perished*. Ego et Cicerō valēmus, *Cicero and I are well*; C. Fam. 14, 5. Tū et Tullia valētis, *you and Tullia are well*. Pater mihi et māter mortui sunt, *my father and mother are dead*; T. Eun. 517. Labor voluptāsque inter sē sunt iūcta, *labor and pleasure are joined together*; L. 5, 4.

1. The verb generally agrees with one subject and is understood with the others, when it stands before the subjects or between them, as in the first example, and when the subjects represent inanimate objects, as in the second example.

2. A verb agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Person, takes the first person rather than the second and the second rather than the third, as in the fourth and fifth examples.

3. A participle in a compound tense, agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Gender, is masculine if the subjects denote persons, otherwise generally neuter, as in the sixth and seventh examples.

4. **Two Subjects as a Unit.**—Two singular subjects forming in sense a Unit or Whole admit a singular verb :

Cui senātus populusque Rōmānus praemia dedit, *to whom the senate and Roman people (i.e. the state as a unit) gave rewards*; C. Balb. 4, 10. Sed tempus necessitāsque postulat, *but the time and necessity (i.e. the crisis) demand*; C. Off. 1, 23, 81.

5. **With Aut or Neque.**—When subjects connected by **aut**, **vel**, **neque**, **nec**, **siue**, or **seu** are of the same person, the verb generally agrees with the nearest subject, but when they differ in person, the verb is generally plural :

Aut Brūtus aut Cassius iūdicāvit, *either Brutus or Cassius judged*. Haec neque ego neque tū fēcimus, *neither you nor I have done these things*; T. Ad.

APPOSITIVES AND PREDICATE NOUNS

393. Rule. — A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Appositives. — *Cluilius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies.* *Saguntum, foederatam civitatem, expugnāvit, he took Saguntum, an allied town.* *Themistoclēs vēni ad tē, I, Themistocles, have come to you;* N. 2, 9. *Venus, rēgina Cnidi, Venus, the queen of Cnidus;* H. 1, 30.

Predicates. — *Usus magister est, experience is a teacher;* C. E. Post. 4, 9. *Vita magistra est, life is an instructress;* C. Rose. A. 27, 75. *Exstitisti tū vindex nostrae libertātis, you have appeared as the defender of our liberty.* *Servius rēx est declarātus, Servius was declared king.*

1. An appositive or a predicate noun with different forms for different genders must agree in gender as well as in case; as **Cluilius rēx**, **Venus rēgina**, **ūsus magister**, **vita magistra**, above.

2. An appositive or a predicate noun may agree with a pronoun, whether expressed or only implied in the ending of a verb. Thus **Themistoclēs** above agrees with a pronoun implied in **vēnī**, while **vindex** agrees with **tū** expressed.

3. **Clauses.** — A noun or pronoun may be an appositive or predicate of a clause, or a clause an appositive or predicate of a noun or pronoun:

Ceterum, id quod nōn timēbant, prope libertās amissa est, but liberty was almost lost, that which they did not fear; L. 2, 3. *Facinus est vincire civem Rōmānum, to bind a Roman citizen is a crime.* *Orāculum datum erat victricēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious;* C. Tusc. 1, 28.

4. **Partitive Apposition.** — The parts may be appositives or predicates of the whole, or the whole may be an appositive or predicate of the parts:

Duo rēgēs, ille bellō, hic pāce, civitatem auxērunt, two kings advanced the interests of the state, the former by war, the latter by peace; L. 1, 21. *Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, rēgēs Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt;* et. L. 37, 3. *Nautius et Fūrius cōsulēs erant, Nautius and Furius were consuls;* L. 2, 39.

5. **Predicate Apposition.** — Appositives sometimes have nearly the force of subordinate clauses:

Aedem Salūtis dictātor dēdicāvit, he dedicated the temple of Salus when (he was) dictator; L. 10, 1, 9.

6. Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive implied in them:

Ad tuam ipsius amicitiam, to your own friendship. Nomen meum absentis, my name in my absence.

7. Locatives admit appositives in the Locative Ablative, with or without a preposition :

Albae cōstitērunt in urbe opportūnā, they halted at Alba, a convenient city; C. Ph. 4, 2. Corinthi, Achāiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia; T. H. 2, 1.

8. Predicate nouns are most frequent with **sum** and a few intransitive verbs, **ēvādō**, **existō**, **appāreō**, and the like, and with passive verbs of Appointing, Making, Naming, Regarding, and the like.

9. Predicate nouns are used, not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and participles, and sometimes without verb or participle :

Orestem sē esse dixit, he said that he was Orestes. Declārātus rēx Numa, Numa having been declared king. Caniniō cōsule, Canin'us being consul.

10. In the poets, predicate nouns are used with verbs of a great variety of signification :

Rēxque paterque audistī, you have been called both king and father (have heard yourself so called); H. E. 1, 7, 37. Ego quae di in incēdō rēgina, I who walk as queen of the gods; V. 1, 46.

11. The Dative of the object for which (433), **prō** with the Ablative, and **locō** (or **numerō** (or **in numerō**) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to predicate nouns :

Malō est hominibus avāritia, avarice is an evil to men (is to men for an evil). Sicilia nōbīs prō aerārīō fuit, Sicily was a treasury (for a treasury) for us. Deōrum numerō cōs dūcunt, they consider them as gods (in the number of).

12. For the Predicate Accusative, see 410, 1.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

394. Rule. — Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case :

Fortūna caeca est, Fortune is blind. Vērāe amicitiae sempiternae sunt, true friendships are enduring. Usus magister est optimus, Experience is the best teacher. Haec aurea vāsa, these golden vessels. Sōl oriēns diem cōfcit, the sun rising makes the day. Certum est liberōs amārī, it is certain that children are loved.

1. Demonstratives and participles are adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as **haec vāsa**, **sōl oriēns**.

2. Remember that in the passive forms of the verb the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 390, 391.

3. For the distinction between an attributive adjective and a predicate adjective, see 393, 2.

4. **Agreement with Clause, etc.** — An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as with a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc. Thus, in the last example, *certum* agrees with *liberōs amārī*. When an adjective agrees with a clause, or with an Infinitive, it is always neuter, generally singular, but in poetry it is sometimes plural as in Greek:

Ut Aenēās iactētur nōta tibi, *how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you*; V. 1, 667.

5. A neuter adjective used substantively sometimes supplies the place of a predicate adjective:

Cum mors sit extrēmum, *since death is the last thing*; C. Fam. 6, 21. Triste lupus stabulis, *a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks*; V. E. 3, 80.

6. A neuter adjective with a Genitive is often used in poetry and in late prose, rarely in Caesar and Cicero, instead of an adjective with its noun; especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Mirātur strāta viārum,¹ *he admires the paved streets*; V. 1, 422. Corruptus vānis rērum, *deluded by vain things*; H. S. 2, 2. Cuncta terrārum subācta, *all lands subdued*; H. 2, 1, 23.

7. Sometimes, though chiefly in poetry, the adjective or participle conforms to the real meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certāre parātī, *a part (some) prepared to contend*; V. 5, 108. Absente nobīs (= mē), *in my absence*; T. Eun. 649. Dēmōsthēnēs cum cēteris erant expulsi, *Demosthenes with the others had been banished*; N. 19, 2.

8. **Agreement with One Noun for Another.** — When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns sometimes agrees with the other, especially in poetry and late prose:

Maiōra rērum initia, *the beginning of greater things*; L. 1, 1. Ad iūsti cursum annis, *to the regular course of the river*; L. 1, 4.

9. In poetry an adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit sē dextra, *she shows herself favorable*; V. 2, 388.

395. An adjective or participle, belonging in sense to two or more nouns, may agree with one and be understood with the others, or it may agree with them all conjointly:

¹ *Strāta viārum*, poetical for *strātās viās*.

Dubitāre visus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt; C. Or. 1, 62. Temeritās Ignōrātiōque vitiosa est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Castor et Pollūx ex equis pugnāre visī sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback; C. N. D. 2, 2.

1. An attributive adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun; a predicate adjective less frequently:

Agri omnēs et maria, all lands and seas; C. Tusc. 1, 28. Huic Hyperidēs proximus et Aeschinēs fuit, next to him were Hyperides and Aeschines; C. Brut. 9, 36.

2. A plural adjective or participle used with two or more nouns of different genders is generally masculine, when the nouns denote living beings, or are in a manner personified, otherwise generally neuter, used substantively; see 394, 5:

Pater mihi et māter mortui sunt, my father and mother are dead; cf. T. Eun. 517. Rēx rēgiaque classis¹ profecti, the king and the royal fleet set out. Honōrēs, imperia, victōriae fortuita sunt, honors, commands, and victories are accidental things; C. Or. 2, 6. Inimica inter sē sunt libera civitās et rēx, a free state and a king are things hostile to each other. Labor voluptāsque, dissimillima naturā, inter sē sunt iūn. C. labor and pleasure, things most unlike by nature, are joined together.

NOTE. — Moreover, with nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is sometimes neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Stultitia et temeritās et iniūstitia sunt fugienda, folly, rashness, and injustice are things to be avoided; cf. C. Fin. 3, 11.

3. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun: **prima et vicēsima legiōnēs**, the first and twentieth legions.

4. In the same manner two or more **praenōmina**, personal names, in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural: **Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiōnēs**, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio.

5. For Roman names, see 354, 3.

AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS

396. Rule. — Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person:

Nēmō est quī tē nōn metuat, there is nō one who does not fear you. Graeci rebus istis, quas nōs contemnimus, delectantur, the Greeks are delighted with those things which we despise. Nihil agis quod ego nōn videam,

¹ Here *rēgia classis* is in a manner personified, as it represents the soldiers who manned the fleet.

you do nothing which I do not see. Ego quī tē cōfirmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I who encouraged you am not able to encourage myself. Vis est in virtūtibus; eas excitā, there is strength in virtues; arouse them.

1. When the antecedent is a determinative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative takes the person of the latter:

Haec is fēci quī sodālis Dolābellae eram, I who was the companion of Dolabella did this; C. Fam. 12, 14.

2. Pronouns which have predicate nouns associated with them generally agree by attraction with those nouns:

Animal quem¹ vocāmus hominem, the animal which we call man; C. Leg. 1, 7. Thēbae quod¹ Boeōtiae caput est, Thebes which is the capital of Boeotia; L. 42, 44. Ea¹ erat cōfessiō, that (the fact stated) was an admission; L. 1, 45.

NOTE. — Pronouns are not usually attracted when they are neuter and stand in a negative sentence nor when the predicate noun is a foreign proper name:

Nec sopor illud erat, nor was that sleep; V. 3, 173. Flūmen quod appellātur Tamesis, a river which is called the Thames; Caes. 5, 11.

3. Pronouns, when used as adjectives, conform, of course, to the ordinary rule for adjectives; see 394.

397. Synthesis. — The Pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent without regard to grammatical form, and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Equitātum praemittit quī videant, etc., he sends forward his cavalry to see, etc.; Caes. 1, 15. Eārum rērum utrumque, each of these things; C. Div. 1, 52. Quia fessum militem habēbat, iis quīetē dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them rest. Dēmocritum omittāmus; nihil est enim apud istōs, let us omit Democritus; for there is nothing in the works of such.

398. Two or More Antecedents. — When a pronoun refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest, or the most important:

Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs, quārum² Rōmae templa sunt, Piety, Virtue, and Faith, whose temples are at Rome; C. Leg. 2, 11. Praeter culpam ac peccātum, quā² semper carēbis, except fault and error, from which you will ever be free; C. Fam. 5, 21.

¹ Quem attracted from quod to agree with hominem; quod attracted from quae to agree with caput, and ea from id to agree with cōfessiō.

² Quārum agrees with Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs, conjointly; quā with culpam, the more important.

1. With antecedents differing in gender, the pronoun conforms to the rule for adjectives, being generally masculine if the antecedents denote persons, otherwise neuter ; see 395, 2 :

Lātōna et Apollō et Diāna. quōrum divinum domicilium compilāvit, Lātōna, Apollo, and Diana, whose divine abode he pillaged ; C. Ver. 5, 72 Inconstantia et temeritās, quae digna nōn sunt deō, inconsistency and rashness, which are things not worthy of a god ; cl. C. N. D. 3, 24.

2. With antecedents differing in person, the pronoun conforms to the rule for verbs, preferring the first person to the second and the second to the third, see 392, 2 :

Errāstis et tū et collēgae tui quī spērāstis, both you and your colleagues who hoped, have made a mistake ; C. Agr. 1, 7.

399. Relative Construction. — Originally the relative was a pronominal adjective in agreement with the antecedent repeated in the relative clause, as *itinerā duo, quibus itineribus, two ways, by which ways*. Generally the antecedent is retained in the principal clause and omitted in the relative clause, but sometimes it is retained in the relative clause and omitted in the principal clause, and sometimes it is omitted in both. Hence the following forms :

1. Antecedent in both clauses :

Erant itinerā duo, quibus itineribus domō exire possent, there were two ways by which they were able to go from home ; Caes. 1, 6

2. Antecedent omitted in the relative clause, the usual construction :

Mariū quī Italiā obsidiōne liberāvit, Marius who freed Italy from siege.

3. Antecedent omitted in the principal clause, but retained in the relative clause. In this construction the relative clause in classical prose generally stands first :

In quem ēgressi sunt locum, Trōia vocātur, the place where (into which) they landed is called Troy ; L. 1, 1. Quam quisque nōrit artē, in hāc se exerceat, let every one practice the art which he knows ; C. Tusc. 1, 18, 41.

4. Antecedent omitted in both clauses. This is common when the antecedent is indefinite, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective :

Sunt quī cēseant, there are some who think. Vestrā, quī cum integritate vixistis, hōc interest, this interests you who have lived uprightly ; C. Sull. 28, 79. Servillī tumultū, quōs, etc., in the revolt of the slaves whom, etc. ; Caes. 1, 40.

NOTE. — In the second example, the antecedent of *quī* is a personal pronoun implied in *vestrā*, and in the last example the antecedent of *quōs* is *servōrum* implied in *servillī*, of the slaves.

5. **Attracted.** — The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and in poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative :

Notante iudice, quō¹ nōsti, *when the judge whom you know reprimands* ; H. S. 1, 6, 14. Urbem,¹ quam statuō, *vestra est, the city which I am building is yours* ; V. 1, 578.

6. **Clause as Antecedent.** — When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun is in the neuter singular, but the relative generally adds **id** as an appositive to such antecedent :

Rēgem, quod numquam antea acciderat, necāvērunt, *they put their king to death, which had never before happened* ; C. OE. 2, 23. Sin ā vōbis, id quod nōn spērō, dēserar, *but if I should be deserted by you, which I do not expect* ; C. Rosc. A. 4, 10.

USE OF CASES

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES. — NOMINATIVE AND VOCATIVE

400. Cases, in accordance with their general meaning and use, naturally arrange themselves in pairs, as follows :

I.	{ Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
	{ Vocative,	Case of the Person Addressed.
II.	{ Accusative,	Case of the Direct Object.
	{ Dative,	Case of the Indirect Object.
III.	{ Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
	{ Ablative,	Case of Adverbial Relations.

NOTE. — The Nominative, Vocative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative have probably retained, with very slight modifications, their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived. For the Ablative, see 459.

NOMINATIVE

401. The Nominative is used as follows :

1. As Subject of the Sentence ; see 382, 1 ; 387.
2. As Appositive to another Nominative ; see 393.
3. As Predicate Nominative ; see 393.
4. In Exclamations ; see 421, 3.

¹ Quō attracted from *quem* into the case of the antecedent ; urbem attracted from *urbs* into the case of the relative.

VOCATIVE.—CASE OF ADDRESS

402. Rule.—The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, *the kingdom is yours, Servius*. Quid est, Catilīna, quod tē dēlectāre possit, *what is there, Catiline, which . . . in please you?* Ō di immortālēs, *O immortal gods*.

1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.
2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus,¹ *hear ye, Alban people*; L. 1, 24.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab ōris expectāte venis, *from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come?* V. 2, 282. Iāne libentius audis, *you prefer to be called Janus*²; H. S. 2, 6, 20. Macte novā virtūte,³ *a blessing on your new valor*³; V. 9, 641.

ACCUSATIVE

403. The Accusative is used as follows:

1. As Direct Object; see **404**.
2. As Direct Object and Predicate; see **410**.
3. As Double Object—Person and Thing; see **411**.
4. As Direct Object with Infinitive, see **414**.
5. As Subject of Infinitive; see **415**.
6. As Accusative of Specification; see **416**.
7. As Accusative of Time, Space, and Limit; see **417**, **418**.
8. With Prepositions and in Exclamations; see **420**, **421**.

Accusative as Direct Object

404. Rule.—The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Marius Italiam liberāvit, *Marius freed Italy*. Populi Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, *defend the safety of the Roman people*. Rōmulus Rōmānū condi-

¹ But *populus Albānus* may be a Nominative form with the Vocative meaning following the analogy of all nouns and adjectives except those in *us*; see **75**, 1.

² Or, *you more gladly hear yourself called Janus*.

³ Supply *estō*. Literally *be enlarged by your new valor*. In this expression, *macte* has become so far indeclinable that it is used in the Accusative singular and in the plural.

dit, *Romulus founded Rome*. *Librum dē rēbus rūsticis scripsi, I wrote a book on rural affairs.*

1. The Direct Object may be either the Person or Thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as *Italiam* and *salūtem* above, or the Result of the action, the object produced by it, as *Rōmam* and *librum*.

2. **Passive Construction.**—In the passive construction, the noun or pronoun which is the direct object of the active becomes the Subject Nominative:

Laudant exquisitissimīs verbīs legiōnēs, they praise the legions with the choicest words. *Laudantur exquisitissimīs verbīs legiōnēs, the legions are praised with the choicest words;* C Ph. 4, 3, 6.

3. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as a direct object:

Vērū audire nōn vult, he does not wish to hear the truth. *Quis sim sciēs, you will know who I am.*

4. The object of a transitive verb is often omitted when it can be easily supplied: *moveō* = *moveō mē, I move;* *vertit* = *vertit sē, he turns.*

405. Special Verbs.—Note the use of the Accusative with the following special verbs, many of which admit other constructions, as the Dative or the Ablative with or without *dē*. Thus:

1. With verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell; as *dēspērāre*, to despair, to despair of; *dolēre*, to grieve, to grieve for; *gemere*, to sigh, to sigh over; *horrēre*, to shudder, to shudder at; *maerēre*, to mourn, to mourn over; *mīrārī*, to wonder, to wonder at; *ridēre*, to laugh, to laugh at; *sitire*, to thirst, to thirst after; *olēre*, *redolēre*, to have an odor, to have the odor of; *sapere*, to have taste, to have the taste of:

Meum cāsum doluerunt, they mourned over my misfortune; C Sest. 69, 145. *Pācem dēspērāvī, I despaired of peace;* C. Att. 7, 20. *Dētrīmenta ridet, he laughs at losses;* H. E. 2, 1, 121. *Orātiōnēs redolentēs antiquitātem, orations savoring of antiquity;* C. Brut. 21, 82.

NOTE.—*Dolēre* takes the Accusative or the Ablative with or without *dē*; *dēspērāre*, the Accusative, the Dative, or the Ablative with *dē*; *olēre* and *redolēre*, the Accusative or Ablative: *dēlictō dolēre*, to grieve over a fault; *salūtī* or *dē salūte dēspērāre*, to despair of safety; *sibi dēspērāre*, to despair of oneself; *redolēre thymō*, to have the odor of thyme.

2. With a few other verbs; as *dūrāre*, to grow hard, to make hard; *supeditāre*, to abound, to furnish bountifully; *tacēre*, to be silent, to pass over in silence:

Ego multa tacui, I have passed over many things in silence; C. C. 4, 1, 2.

3. Several impersonal verbs admit the Accusative; as **decet**, *it befits*; **dēdecet**, *it does not befit*; **luvat**, *it pleases*; **fallit**, *fugit*, **praetoritur**, *it escapes*:

Orātōrem **irāscī** **minimē** **decet**, *it by no means becomes an orator to be angry*. **Nisi** **mē** **fallit**, *unless it escapes me, unless I mistake*.

4. **Miseret**, **paenitet**, **pudet**, **taedet**, and **piget** take the Accusative and Genitive; see 457.

NOTE. — Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitive in Latin, and thus admit only an Indirect Object or some special construction; see 426.

406. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with **circum**, **per**, **praeter**, **trans**, and **super**, take the Accusative:

Mutinam **circumsedent**, *they are besieging Mutina*. **Murmur** **cōtīōnem** **pervāsīt**, *a murmur went through the assembly*. **Pyrēnaeum** **trānsgrēditur**, *he crosses the Pyrenees*. **Undam** **īmatat** **alias**, *the boat floats upon the stream*; V. G. 2, 451. **Tēla** **modo** **exit**, *he only avoids the bloes*; V. 5, 438.

407. In poetry, rarely in prose, a few verbs, chiefly those of Clothing and Unclothing, — **induo**, **exuo**, **cingo**, **accingo**, etc., — are sometimes used reflexively in the passive, like the Greek Middle Voice, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam **induitur**, *he puts on his helmet*; V. 2, 392. **Infūtile** **ferrum** **cingitur**, *he girds on his useless sword*; V. 2, 510. **Pueri** **suspēnsī** **loculōs** **lacertō**, *boys with satchels hung upon the arm*; II S. 1, 6, 73. **Pāscuntur** **silvās**, *they browse upon the forests*; V. G. 3, 314. **Iūnō** **neccum** **antīquum** **saturāta** **dolōrem**, *Juno not yet having appeased her old resentment*; V. 5, 608.

408. Verbal Adjectives and, in Plautus, a few Verbal Nouns occur with the Accusative:

Vitābundus **castra** **hostium**, *avoiding the camp of the enemy*; L. 25, 18. **Quid** **tibi** **hanc** **cūrātiōst** **rem** (**cūrātiōst** = **cūrātiō** **est**), *why do you care for this*? Pl. Amph. 519.

409. Cognate Accusative. — Even Intransitive verbs admit the Accusative of an object of cognate or kindred meaning, generally with an adjective or other modifier:

Tūtām **vitam** **vivere**, *to lead a secure life*; C. Ver. 2, 47. **Cōnsimilem** **lūe-**
rat **ille** **lūdum**, *he had played a similar game*; T. Eun. 586. **Nēmō** **servitūtem**
servivit, *no one lived in servitude*; C. Top. 6, 29.

1. Note the following use of neuter pronouns and adjectives in a kindred sense :

Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes ; C. N. D. 1, 12. *Idem glōriārī, to make the same boast* ; C. Sen. 10. *Hōc puerī possunt, have the boys this power ?* C. Tusc. 2, 14.

2. Note the following poetical constructions :

Pūgnāvit proelia, he fought battles ; II 4, 9. *Vōx hominem sonat, the voice sounds human* ; V. 1, 328. *Corōnārī Olympia, to be crowned with the Olympic crown* ; H. E. 1, 1, 50.

Two Accusatives of the Same Person

410. Rule. — Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing :

Hamilcarem imperātōrem fēcērunt, they made Hamilcar commander ; N. 22, 2. *Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, the people made Ancus king* ; L. 1, 32. *Summum cōsilium appellārunt senātum, they called their highest council a senate* ; cf. C. Sen. 6. *Catō Flaccum habuit collēgam, Cato had Flaccus as a colleague* ; N. 24, 1.

1. **Predicate Accusative.** — One of these two Accusatives is the Direct Object and the other a Predicate Accusative. In the passive the direct object of the active becomes the subject Nominative and the predicate Accusative becomes the predicate Nominative :

Populus Rōmānus cōsulem mē fēcīt, the Roman people made me consul.
Cōsul factus sum, I was made consul.

2. **Habēre, to have,** admits two Accusatives, as in the fourth example under the rule, but when it means to *regard*, it usually takes, instead of the predicate Accusative, the Dative, the Ablative with **in** or **prō**, or the Genitive with **locō**, **numerō**, or **in numerō** :

Paupertās probrō habērī coepit, the absence of wealth began to be regarded as a disgrace, S. C. 12. *Sēsē illum nōn prō amicō, sed hoste habitūrum, that he should regard him, not as a friend, but as an enemy* ; Caes. 1, 44. *Reductōs in hostium numerō habuit, he regarded them as enemies, when brought back.*

NOTE. — These constructions are also used with other verbs meaning to *regard*.

3. The Predicate Accusative is often an adjective :

Ipsōs caecōs reddit avāritia, avarice makes them blind ; cf. C. Rosc. A. 35.

Two Accusatives—Person and Thing

411. Rule.—Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit Two Accusatives—one of the Person and one of the Thing:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion; C. Q. Fr. 2, 1. Pācem tē pōscimus, we demand peace from you; V, 11 302. Philosophia nōs rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things; cf. C. Leg. 1, 22. Nōn tē cēlāvi sermōnein, I did not conceal the conversation from you; C. Fam. 2, 16.

1. In the passive the Person becomes the subject and the Accusative of the Thing is retained:

Rogātus ego sententiam multa dixi, having been asked my opinion I stated many things; C. Att. 1, 16. Omnēs militiæ artēs ēdoctus fuerat, he had been taught all the arts of war; L. 25, 37. Id cēlāri nōn potuit, he could not be kept ignorant of this; N. 7, 5, 2.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with *cēlō, doceō, ēdoceō*; often with *rogō, pōscō, repōscō*, and sometimes with *dēdoceō, expōscō, flāgitō*; *cōnsulō, interrogō, percontor*, etc.

3. Instead of the Accusative of the Thing verbs of Asking or Questioning generally take the Ablative with *dē*, *cēlō* sometimes takes the Ablative with *dē*, and *doceō* and *ēdoceō* the Ablative with or without *dē*, an Infinitive or a clause:

Quem ego interrogem dē tūribulīs, whom I may question about the censers. Mē dē hōc librō cēlāvit, he kept me ignorant of this book. Dē suā rē mē docet, he informs me in regard to his case. Litteris Græcis doctus, instructed in Greek literature. Sōcratem fidibus docuit, he taught Socrates to play on the lyre; C. Fam. 9, 22. Tē nihil sapere docuit, he taught you to know nothing.

4. *Quaerō, to ask*, and verbs of Imploring and Demanding generally take the Accusative of the Thing and the Ablative of the Person with *ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex*. In the passive the thing becomes the subject and the Ablative of the person is retained:

Quaerit ex solō ea, etc., he asks him in private (from him alone) about those things; Caes. 1, 18. Pācem ā vōbīs petimus, we implore peace from you; L. 6, 26. Id ab eō flāgitābātur, this was earnestly demanded of him.

412. The Accusative of a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective occurs in connection with a direct object with many verbs which otherwise seldom, if ever, take two Accusatives:

Hōc tē hortor, I give you this exhortation; C. C. 1, 5. Ea monēmūr, we are admonished of these things; cf. C. Am. 24. Numquid aliud mē vis? do you wish anything else of me? Illud tē ōrō, that I ask of you.

1. In rare instances, **ōrō**, **moneō** and its compounds admit a noun as the Accusative of the thing.

Auxilia rēgem ōrābant, *they asked auxiliaries of the king*; L. 28, 5. Eam rem nōs locus admonuit, *the place reminded us of that event*; S. 79, 1.

413. A few compounds of **trāns**, and in rare instances of **circum** and **praeter**, admit two Accusatives in the active and one in the passive:

Cōpiās flūmen trādūxit, *he led his forces across the river*; L. 22, 45. Praetervehor ōstia Pantagiae, *I am carried past the mouth of the Pantagias*; V. 3, 698.

Accusative and Infinitive

414. Rule. — Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Ut doceam Rullum tacēre, *that I may teach Rullus to be silent*; C. Agr. 3, 2. Ēdocuit gentem cāsūs aperīre futūrōs, *he taught the race to disclose future events*. Sentīmus calēre ignem, *we perceive that fire is hot*. Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, *they relate that the king concealed himself*; L. 1, 81.

1. In these examples observe that **docuit** and **ēdocuit** admit two Accusatives and that the Infinitive here simply takes the place of one Accusative; that **Rullum** and **gentem** are the objects of the finite verbs; that **ignem**, in the third example, may be explained either as the object of **sentīmus** or as the subject of the Infinitive, **calēre**, *we perceive fire to be hot* or *that fire is hot*; and that the Accusative **rēgem** in the last example is plainly the subject of the Infinitive, **abdidisse**, *that the king concealed himself*. These examples illustrate the development of the subject of the Infinitive out of the direct object of the principal verb. Hence we have the following rule.

415. Rule. — Subject of Infinitive. — The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Platōnem ferunt in Italiā vēnisse, *they report that Plato came into Italy*; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39. Civitātis sapientissimū Solōnem dicunt fuisse, *they say that Solon was the wisest man of the state*.

Accusative of Specification

416. Rule. — In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application:

Nūbe umerōs amictus, *with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud*; H. 1, 2, 81. Miles fractus membra labōre, *the soldier with limbs shattered with labor*

(broken as to his limbs); H. 8. 1, 1, 5. *Aenēas ōs deō similis, Aeneas like a god in countenance*; V. 1, 589

1. This Accusative sometimes concurs with the Poetic Accusative after passive verbs used reflexively. Thus *umerōs* above may be explained either as an Accusative of Specification or as the object of *amictus* used reflexively; see 407.

2. The Accusative is often used in an adverbial sense, developed largely from the Accusative of Specification and the Cognate Accusative, as *multum, plurimum, cētera, reliqua*, etc.; *partem, vicem, nihil, secus, aliquid, hōc, illud, id*, etc.; *id aetātis*, of that age; *id temporis*, at that time:

Cētera ignārus populi Rōmāni, in other respects ignorant of the Roman people; S. 19, 7. *Māximam partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk*; Caes. 4, 1. *Id hominibus id aetātis imponitur, that is placed upon men of that age*, i.e. of that time in life; C. Or. 1, 47, 227. *Locus id temporis vacuus, a place at that time vacant*, C. Fin. 5, 1.

3. *Id genus, omne genus*, and the like, apparently in the sense of *huius generis, omnis generis*, etc., are probably best explained as appositives:

Aliquid id genus scribere, to write something of this kind (something, viz. this kind).

Accusative of Time and Space

417. Rule. — Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trigintā rēgnāvit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven years; L. 1, 21, 6. *Catō annōs quinque et octōgintā nātus excessit ē vitā, Cato died at the age of (having been born) eighty-five years*. *Septingenta milia passuum ambulāre, to walk seven hundred miles*. *Aggerem altum pedēs octōgintā exstrūxērunt, they erected a mound eighty feet high*.

1. Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Accusative with *per*:

Per annōs vīgintī certātum est, the contest was carried on for twenty years.

2. Duration of Time sometimes so far coincides with time in or within which (487) that it is expressed by the Ablative:

Pūgnātum est hōris quinque, the battle was fought five hours, or in five hours; cf. Caes. C. 1, 46.

3. Distance regarded as Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative as in the third and fourth examples, but regarded as the Measure of Difference (479) it is expressed by the Ablative. Moreover, the Ablative of Distance sometimes takes *ā*, or *ab*:

Milibus passuum sex à Caesaris castris cōnsēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp; Caes. 1, 48. Ab milibus passuum duobus castra posuerunt, they pitched their camp two miles off (at or from the distance of two miles); Caes. 2, 7, 3.

4. In expressions of age with **māior** or **minor**, the Accusative may be used with **nātus** or the Ablative with or without **nātus**.

Māior annōs sexāgintā nātus, more than sixty years old; N. 21, 2. Minor quinque et viginti annis nātus, less than twenty-five years old; N. 23, 3. Māior annis quinquāgintā, more than fifty years of age; L. 42, 38.

Limit of Motion

418. Rule. — The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with **ad** or **in**, but in names of Towns by the Accusative alone:¹

Legiōnēs ad urbem addūcit, he is leading the legions to or towards the city, C. Ph. 7, 1. Hannibal exercitum in Italiam dūxit, Hannibal led an army into Italy. Missi lēgātī Athēnās sunt, ambassadors were sent to Athens, L. 3, 31. Reditus Rōmam, a return to Rome. Carthāginem Novam in hiberna Hannibal concessit, Hannibal retired into winter quarters at (lit. to) New Carthage; L. 21, 15.

1. The last example illustrates the fact that when a verb of motion takes two nouns denoting the limit of motion, both nouns must be in the Accusative, even when the English idiom requires the use of *at* or *in*, in translating one of them: *into winter quarters at New Carthage; Latin idiom, to New Carthage into winter quarters.*

2. **Urbs** or **oppidum**, with **in**, may stand before the name of a town, but if accompanied by a modifier, it regularly stands, with or without **in**, after such name:

Pervēnit in oppidum Cirtam, he came into the town Cirta; S. 102. Sē contulit Tarquiniōs, in urbem Etrūriae, he betook himself to Tarquinii, a city of Etruria; cf. C. R. P. 2, 19. Capuam colōnia dēdūcētur, urbem amplissimam, a colony will be conducted to Capua, a very spacious city; C. Agr. 2, 28.

3. By a Latin idiom, verbs meaning *to collect, to come together, etc.*, — **oōgō, convooō, congregō, contrahō, conveniō, adveniō, perveniō**, etc., — are usually treated as verbs of Motion and accordingly take the Accusa-

¹ Originally the Limit of Motion was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

tive, with or without a preposition. On the contrary, verbs meaning to *place*, — **locoō**, **collocoō**, **pōnō**, **statuō**, **cōstituō**, etc., — are usually treated as verbs of Rest, and accordingly take the Ablative (483), generally with a preposition :

Omnēs in ūnum locum cōpiās cōgere, to collect all the forces in one place ; *Caes.* 6, 10. **Omnēs ūnum in locum conveniunt**, they all assemble in one place. **Rōmam Ūtalia tota convēnit**, all Italy assembled at Rome. **Spem salūtis in virtūte pōnēbant**, they all placed their hope of safety in their valor ; *Caes.* 5, 84.

4. In the names of towns the Accusative with **ad** is used in the sense of *to, towards, in the direction of, into the vicinity of*, and in contrast with **a**, or **ab** :

Tres viae sunt ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina ; *C. Ph.* 12, 9. **Ad Zamam pervēnit**, he came into the vicinity of Zama ; *S.* 57. **Ab Diāniō ad Sinōpēn nāvīgāvērunt**, they sailed from Dianium to Sinope ; *C. Ver.* 1, 84, 87.

419. Like names of towns, the following Accusatives are used without prepositions :

1. Regularly **domum**, **domōs**, **rūs**, and Supines in **um** :

Domum reductus est, he was conducted home ; *C. Am.* 3, 12. **Alius alium domōs suās invitāt**, they invite each other to their homes ; *S.* 66, 8. **Domum reditiō**, a return home ; cf. *Caes.* 1, 5. **Ego rūs ibō**, I shall go into the country ; *T. Eun.* 216. **Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt**, they came to Caesar to congratulate him ; *Caes.* 1, 30.

NOTE. — A possessive, or a Genitive of the possessor, may accompany **domum** and **domōs**, as **domum Caesaris**, to Caesar's house ; **domōs suās**, to their homes. With other modifiers a preposition is regularly used, as **in illam domum**, into that house.

2. Sometimes the Accusative of names of Islands and Peninsulas, and even of Countries :

Lātōna cōnfūgit Dēlum, Latona fled to Delos ; cf. *C. Ver.* 1, 19. **Miltiādēs pervēnit Chersonēsum**, Miltiades went to the Chersonesus ; *N.* 1, 1. **Dicitur Aegyptum profūgis**, he is said to have fled to Egypt ; *C. N. D.* 3, 22.

3. In poetry and late prose, the preposition is often omitted before the names of Countries and Nations and sometimes even before common nouns :

Ūtaliām vēnit, he came to Italy ; *V.* 1, 2. **Nōs ibimus Āfrōs**, we shall go to the Africans ; *V. E.* 1, 65. **Lāvina vēnit litōra**, he came to the Lavinian shores ; *V.* 1, 2. **Ille infitiās ibit**, he is going to deny it (to a denial of it) ; *T. Ad.* 829.

4. A Poetical Dative occurs for the Accusative:

It clāmor caelō, *the shout ascends to Heaven*; V. 5, 451. Dum inferret deōs Latīō, *while he was carrying his gods to Latium*; V. 1, 6. Facilis dē-scēnsus Avernō, *easy is the descent to Avernus*; V. 6, 126.

NOTE. — See also Dative in Poetry and late Prose, 428.

Accusative with Prepositions

420. Rule. — The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Scribam ad tē, *I shall write to you*. Ad tē ante lūcem veniet, *he will come to you before light*. Insula contrā Brundisium est, *the island is opposite Brundisium*. Post mē erat Aegīna, *behind me was Aegina*. Insulae propter Siciliam, *the islands near Sicily*. Secundum natūrā vivere, *to live in accordance with nature*.

1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: **ad urbem**, *to the city*; **in urbem**, *into the city*; **per urbem**, *through the city*; **post urbem**, *behind the city*; **prope urbem**, *near the city*.

2. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative alone:

ad,	to	contrā,	opposite	pōne,	behind
adversus,	} opposite	ergā,	towards	post,	behind
adversum,		extrā,	outside	praeter,	beyond
ante,	before	infrā,	below	prope,	near
apud,	near, at	inter,	among	propter,	on account of
circa,	} around	intrā,	inside	secundum,	next after
circum,		iūxtā,	near	suprā,	above
circa,	about	ob,	on account of	trāns,	across
cis,	} on this side	penes,	in power of	ultrā,	beyond
citrā,		per,	through	versus,	towards

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

in, into, in	subter, beneath, under, towards
sub, under	super, above, about, beyond

in and **sub** with the Accusative after verbs of motion; **subter** and **super** generally with the Ablative:

Hannibal exercitum in Italiam dūxit, *Hannibal led an army into Italy*; N. 23, 3. Sub montem succēdunt, *they approached towards the mountain*. Subter mūrōs hostium āvehitur, *he is borne under the walls of the enemy*. Super Numidiam esse, *to be beyond Numidia*; S. 19, 5.

NOTE. — For the Ablative with these four prepositions, see 490, 3.

4. Prepositions were originally adverbs (312, 1) and many of them are still used as adverbs in classical authors:

Ad milibus quattuor, *about four thousand*. Legiō iuxta cōstitērat, *the legion had taken a stand near by*. Prope ā Siciliā, *not far (near) from Sicily*. Suprā, infrā mundōs esse, *that there are worlds above and below*.

5. Conversely, several words which are generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions and are used with the Accusative: **propius**, *nearer*; **proximē**, *nearest*; **prīdiē**, *the day before*; **postridiē**, *the day after*; **clam**, **clanculum**, *without the knowledge of*; **ūsq̄ue**, *as far as, even to*:

Propius periculum, *nearer to danger*; L. 21. 1, 2. Quam proximē Itāliam, *as near as possible to Italy*; C. Ph. 16, 11. Prīdiē eum diem, *the day before that day*; C. Att. 11, 23. Postridiē lūdōs, *the day after the games*; C. Att. 16, 4. Clam patrem, *without father's knowledge*; T. Hec. 896. Usque pedēs, *even to the feet*; Curt. 8, 9.

NOTE. — For the rare use of the Ablative after **clam**, see 490, 4.

Accusative in Exclamations

421. Rule. — The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, *Ah me unhappy*¹; C. Ph. 7, 4. Mē miserum, *me miserable*¹; C. Att. 9, 6. Ō fallacem spem, *O deceptive hope*. Prō deōrum fidem, *in the name of the gods*.²

1. An adjective or a Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

2. Instead of the Accusative, the Vocative may be used when an Address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Infelix Didō, *unhappy Dido*.

3. The Nominative may be used when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

En dextra fidēsque, *lo the right hand and the plighted faith*; V. 4, 507. Ecce tuæ litteræ, *lo your letter*; C. Att. 13, 16, 1.

4. The Ethical Dative is used in exclamations after **ei**, **vae**, **ecce**, and a few other interjections; see 432:

Ei mihi, quid faciam, *woe to me, what shall I do?* T. Ad. 789.

¹ See Milton, *Paradise Lost*, IV. 73.

² Some of the Accusatives found in exclamations are readily explained as the object of omitted verbs, while others may be the survival of rude unfinished sentences from a primitive age.

DATIVE

422. The Dative is used as follows.

1. As Indirect Object — General Use; see **424**.
2. With Special Verbs; see **426**.
3. With Certain Compound Verbs; see **429**.
4. As Possessory; see **430**.
5. As Apparent Agent; see **431**.
6. As Ethical Dative; see **432**.
7. As Indirect Object and Predicate; see **433**.
8. With Adjectives; see **434**.
9. With Special Nouns and Adverbs; see **436**.

Indirect Object

423. The Indirect Object designates the Person To or For Whom, or the Thing To or For Which, anything is or is done.

Dative with Verbs

424. Rule. — The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object :

Mundus Deō paret, the world is subject to God. Tibi seris, tibi metēs, for yourself you sow, for yourself you will reap. Ego Caesari supplicābō, I shall supplicate Caesar. Pecūniae serviunt, they are slaves to money. Vita vōbis data est, life has been granted to you, C. Ph. 14, 12.

Militibus signum dedit, he gave the signal to the soldiers. Tibi grātiās agimus, we give you thanks. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, nature reconciles man to man. Lēgēs civitatibus suis scripsērunt, they wrote laws for their states; C. Leg. 2, 6.

1. The Indirect Object generally designates a Person, or something Personified, as in the examples.

2. The Dative of the Indirect Object must be distinguished from the Accusative, with or without a preposition, denoting the Limit of Motion, and from the Ablative with *pro*, meaning *for, in defense of, in behalf of*. Compare the following examples :

Patriam nobis reddidistis, you have restored our country to us. Missi legātī Athēnās sunt, envoys were sent to Athens. Convenit dimicāre pro patriā, it is seemly to fight for one's country.

3. The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict literal meaning of the verb: *nūbō*, to marry (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bridegroom); *medeor*, to cure (to administer a remedy to):

• *Venus nūpsit Vulcānō*, *Venus married Vulcan*; C. N. D. 3, 23.

425. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be

1. The Dative of Influence, generally designating the Person To Whom, sometimes the Thing To Which, something is or is done:

Civitatibus libertātem reddidit, he restored liberty to the states.

Here belong most of the examples under the rule.

2. The Dative of Interest,¹ designating the Person For Whom something is done:

Nōn nobis solum nāti sumus, we were not born for ourselves alone. *Nōn solum nobis divitēs esse volumus*, sed liberis, we wish to be rich, not for ourselves alone, but for our children; C. OF. 3, 13.

3. The Dative of Purpose or End, designating the Object or End For Which something is or is done:

Receptui cecinit, he gave the signal for a retreat, cf. 34, 39. *Nōn scholae sed vitae discimus*, we learn, not for the school, but for life; Sen. Ep. 103.

4. The Dative of Relation, designating the Person In Relation To Whom, or In Reference To Whom, something is or is done:

Tū illi pater es, you are a father to him; T. Ad. 126. *Tridui iter expeditis erat*, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers; L. 9, 9. *Est urbe ēgressis tumultus*, there is a mound as you go out of the city (to those having [= who have] gone out of the city); V. 2, 712.

NOTE. — A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending on a noun:

Sēsē Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt, they threw themselves at the feet of Caesar; Caes. 1, 31. *Urbi fundāmenta iēcī*, I laid the foundations of (for) the city; L. 1, 12. *Mihī horror membra quatit*, a shudder shakes my limbs; V. 3, 29.

426. With Special Verbs. — The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus,

1. With verbs meaning to please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, benefit or injure, favor or oppose, trust or distrust, and the like:

¹ Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus *Divitēs esse volumus* is complete in itself.

SYNTAX

Ego numquam mihi placui, I have never pleased myself; C. Or. 2, 4, 16. **Crūdēlitas ei displicēbat, cruelty was displeasing to him.** Imperat aut servit pecūnia cuique, *money rules (commands) or serves every one;* H. E. 1, 10, 47. **Deo obediunt maria, the seas obey God.** Nōn licet nocere alteri, *it is not lawful to injure another.* Omnēs nobilitati favēmus, *we all regard nobility with favor.* Diffidēbant Serviliō, *they were distrusting Servilius.*

NOTE 1. — A few verbs of this class take the Accusative: **laedō, regō,** etc.

NOTE 2. — Here may be mentioned the use of the Dative with **faciō** and **dicō** accompanied by **satis, bene,** or **male**:

Mihi numquam satis faciō, I never satisfy myself; C. Fam. 1, 1. **Di tibi bene faciant, may the gods bless you;** T. Ad. 917. **Male dicēbat tibi, he slandered you;** C. Deiot. 12, 38.

NOTE 3. — For **fidō** and **cōnfidō** with the Ablative, see 476, 3.

2. With verbs meaning *to indulge, aid, spare, pardon, believe, persuade, flatter, threaten, envy, be angry,* and the like:

Indulgēbat sibi, he indulged himself. Nullius pepercit vitæ, *he spared the life of no one.* **Caesar ignōvit omnibus, Caesar pardoned all.** **Mihi crēde, believe me.** **Facile Nervii persuadet, he easily persuades the Nervii.** Huic imperiō minitābantur, *they were threatening this government.* **Probus invidet nemini, the upright man envies no one.**

NOTE. — Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: **dēlectō, iuvō,** etc.

3. The Impersonal Passive of verbs which take only an Indirect Object in the active retains the Dative:

Nō mihi noccant, that they may not injure me; C. C. 8, 12. **Mihi nihil nocēri potest, no injury can be done to me;** C. C. 3, 12.

4. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Hunc tū cavetō, be on your guard against this one; H. S. 1, 4, 85. **Foedus regi cavet, the treaty provides for the king;** C. Agr. 2, 22. **Deum cōsultuit, he consulted the god.** **Vobis cōsultite, consult (take measures) for yourselves.** **Perfidiam timēmus, we fear perfidy.** **Legionibus timēbat, he was fearing for his legions.** **Quis mē vult, who wishes me?** F. And. 872. **Tibi bene volō, I wish you well;** T. Heaut. 959.

NOTE. — **Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one;** **cavere alicui, to care for some one;** **cupere aliquid, to desire something;** **cupere alicui, to wish one well;** **prōspicere, prōvidere aliquid, to foresee;** **prōspicere, etc., alicui, to provide for;** **temperare aliquid, to govern, direct;** **temperare alicui, (of things) to restrain, (of persons) to spare.**

5. With **scribō**, to write, and **mittō**, to send, the Person may be denoted either by the Dative or by the Accusative with **ad**, but with **nūntiō**, to announce, the person is generally denoted by the Dative :

Labiēnō scribit, he writes to Labienus. Scribam ad tē, I shall write to you. Ea res hostibus nūntiātur, this fact is announced to the enemy.

NOTE. — **Dare litterās alicui** generally means to deliver a letter to some one, especially to a carrier or messenger, but **dare litterās ad aliquem** means to address or send a letter to some one :

Litterās ad tē numquam habui cui darem, I have never had any one by whom to send (lit. to whom I might deliver) a letter to you ; C. Fam. 12, 19.

6. A few verbs admit the Dative of the Person and the Accusative of the Thing, or the Accusative of the Person and the Ablative of the Thing :

Prædam militibus dōnat, he gives the booty to the soldiers ; Cæc. 7, 11. Atticus Athēniēnsēs frūmentō dōnavit, Atticus presented the Athenians with grain ; cf. N. 25, 2.

7. **Interdicō** takes the Dative of the Person and generally the Ablative of the Thing, sometimes with **dē**, but the Accusative also occurs :

Omni Galliā Rōmānis interdixit, he forbade the Romans all Gaul.

427 A Dative rendered *from* or *with* sometimes occurs where our idiom would lead us to expect the Ablative, as with verbs of Differing, Dissenting, Repelling, Taking Away, etc., and sometimes with **faciō**, **miscēō**, etc.

Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Sibi discrepantēs, disagreeing with themselves. Populus nōn adimit ei libertātem, the people do not take from him his civil rights ; C. Cæc. 34, 99. Quid huic homini faciās, what are you to do with (to) this man ? C. Cæc. 11, 31.

428. Dative in Poetry. — In the poets and in the late prose writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs :

1. With verbs denoting Motion or Direction — for the Accusative with **ad** or **in** :

Multōs dēmittimus Orcō, we send many down to Orcus ; V. 2, 398. It clāmor cælō, the shout goes to heaven ; V. 5, 451.

2. With verbs denoting Separation or Difference — instead of the Ablative with **ab** or **dē**, or the Accusative with **inter** :

Solstitium pecori defendite, keep off the heat from the flock; V. Ec. 7, 47. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester; H. E. 1, 18. Serta capiti delapsa, garlands fallen from his head; V. Ec. 6, 16.

3. With verbs denoting Union, Comparison, Contention, and the like — instead of the Ablative with *cum*, or the Accusative with *inter*:

Flētum cruōri miscuit, she mingled her tears with his blood; O. M. 4, 140. Concurrere hosti, to meet the enemy; O. M. 12, 595. Sōlus tibi certat, he alone contends with you; V. Ec. 5, 8. Placitōne pūgnābis amōri, will you contend with acceptable love? V. 4, 38.

4. In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri arundō, the arrow sticks in her side; V. 4, 78. Ārdet apex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head; V. 10, 270.

429. Datives with Compounds. — The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with

ad	ante	con	dē	in	inter
ob	post	prae	prō	sub	super:

Omnibus periculis adfuit, he was present in all dangers Glōriam potentiae antepōnunt, they prefer glory to power. Parva magnis cōferuntur, small things are compared with (to) great. Ille Caesarī defuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Bellum populō Rōmānō indixit, he declared war against the Roman people. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Homīnēs hominibus et prōsunt et obsunt, men both benefit and injure men. Libertāti opēs postferēbant, they sacrificed wealth to liberty. Equitātui Dumnorix praeerat, Dumnorix commanded the cavalry. Aetās succēdit aetāti, age succeeds age. Neque superesse rei publicae volō, nor do I wish to survive the republic.

1. Transitive verbs thus compounded take both the Accusative and the Dative, as in the second and fifth examples, and in the passive they retain the Dative, as in the third example.

2. Compounds of other prepositions, especially of *ab*, *ex*, and *circum*, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Sibi libertātem abiūdicat, he condemns himself to the loss of liberty; cf. C. Caec. 34. Hunc mihi timōrem ēripe, take away from (for) me this fear; C. C. 1, 7. Homīnēs labōre assuētī, men habituated to (familiarized with) labor; C. Or. 8, 15. Dicta cum factis composuit, he compared words with deeds; S. 43.

3. **Motion, Direction.** — Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition:

Hērēditātem adīre, *to enter on an inheritance*. Cōsulātus ad on- periculum oppōnitur, *the consulship is exposed to every danger*.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning:

Tuscus ager Rōmānō adiacet, *the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman*; L. 2, 49, 9. Mare illud adiacent, *they are near that sea*; N. 18, 2. Quibus timor incesserat, *whom fear had seized*; S. C. 31. Timor patrēs incessit, *fear seized the fathers*; L. 1, 17.

5. Some of these compounds admit the Dative in poetry, though in classical prose the Accusative or Ablative, with or without a preposition, is more common:

Contendis Homērō,¹ *you contend with Homer*; Prop. 1, 7, 2. Animis¹ illābere nostris, *inspire (descend into) our souls*; V. 3, 89.

6. Instead of the compounds of *ad*, *ante*, etc., the poets sometimes use the simple verbs with the Dative:

Qui haeserat Euandrō, *who had joined himself to Evander*; V. 10, 790.

430. The Dative of the Possessor is used with the verb *sum*:

Est mihi domi pater, *I have (there is to me) a father at home*. Sex filii nōbīs sūt, *we have six sons*. Fonti nōmen Arethūsa est, *the name of the (to the) fountain is Arethusa*; cf. C. Ver. 4, 58.

1. The Dative of the name, as well as of the possessor, is common in expressions of naming:

Scipiōni Āfricānō cōgnōmen fuit, *Scipio had the surname Africanus*; cf. S. 5, 4. Here *Āfricānō*, instead of being in apposition with *cōgnōmen*, is put by attraction in apposition with *Scipiōni*.

2. By a Greek idiom, *volēns*, *cupiēns*, or *invītus* sometimes accompanies the Dative of the Possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, *who liked the war (to whom wishing the war was)*; Tac. Agr. 18.

431. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

Dicenda Mūsīs proelia, *battles to be sung by the muses*; H. 4, 9, 21. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, *every one has his own trouble to bear*; O. Off. 3, 6, 30.

¹ Prose construction, *cum Homērō* and *in animōs*.

1. Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used :

Quibus est **ā** vōbis¹ cōsulendum, *for whom measures must be taken by you* ; C. Man. 2.

2. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of Passive Verbs :

Mihī cōsiliū captū iam diū est, *I have a plan long since formed* ; C. Fam. 5, 19.

3. **Habeō** with the Perfect Participle has the same force as **est mihi** with the Participle :

Pecūniās collocātās habent, *they have moneys invested* ; C. Man. 7, 18. Equitātū coāctū habēbat, *he had collected his cavalry or had his cavalry collected* ; Caes. 1, 15.

NOTE. — The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do ; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

4. The Real Agent, with passive verbs, in classical prose is denoted by the Ablative with **ā** or **ab**² ; see 468.

5. The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (to) whom the action is performed :

Honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, *honorable things are sought by good men* ; C. Off. 3, 9.

6. In the poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative, with **ā** or **ab**, to designate simply the agent of the action :

Neque cernitur ūlli, *nor is he seen by any one* ; V. 1, 440. Nulla tuārum audita mihi sorōrum, *no one of your sisters has been heard by me* ; V. 1, 236. Rēgnāta arva Sātūrnō quondam, *lands formerly ruled by Saturn* ; V. 6, 798.

¹ Here **ā vōbis** is necessary to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, **quibus** ; but the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

² The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of the Indirect Object. Thus, **suū cuique incommodū est** means *every one has his trouble* (**cuique**, Dative of Possessor) and **suū cuique incommodū ferendū est**, *every one has his trouble to bear*. So, too, **mihi cōsiliū est**, *I have a plan* ; **mihi cōsiliū captū est**, *I have a plan (already) formed*.

432. The Ethical Dative, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence¹ in the form of a personal pronoun :

At tibi venit ad mē, *but lo, he comes to me*; C. Fam. 9, 2. Quō mihi abis, *whither are you going, pray?* V. 5, 102. Quid mihi Celsus agit, *what is my Celsus doing?* Quid vobis vultis, *what do you wish or mean?* Ei mihi, *quid faciam, woe to me, what shall I do?* T. Ad. 739.

Two Datives

433. Rule. — Two Datives, the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which, are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object:

Vobis honorī estis, *you are an honor (for an hono.) to yourselves*; cf. C. Or. 1, 8, 34. Est mihi magnae cūrae, *it is of (for) great interest to me*; C. Fin. 3, 2, 8. Odio sum Rōmānis, *I am an object of hatred to the Romans*; L. 35, 19, 6. Id mihi est cordi, *this is pleasing (for my heart) to me*; C. Am. 4, 15. Venit Atticis auxilio, *he came to the assistance of the Athenians*; N. 8, 3, 1. Hōc illi tribuēbatur ignāviae, *this was imputed to him as cowardice*; C. Fam. 2, 16, 3.

Quinque cohortēs castris praesidiō relinquit, *he leaves five cohorts for the defense of the camp*; Caes. 7, 60. Periclēs agrōs suōs donō rei publicae dedit, *Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present*; Just. 3, 7.

1. The Dative of the object or end is a Predicate Dative. Thus in the first example the predicate is **honorī estis**; see Predicate Nominative (**393**) and Predicate Accusative (**410**, 1).

2. The verbs which take two Datives are Intransitive verbs signifying *to be, become, go*, and the like: **sum, fiō**, etc., and Transitive verbs signifying *to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose*, and the like: **dō, donō, dūcō, habeo, mittō, relinquo, tribuo, vertō**, etc. The latter take in the active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive; see **404**, 2.

3. One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a Predicate Nominative:

Nāvēs nullō ūsuī fuērunt, *the ships were of no use*; Caes. C. 2, 7, 1. Tū illi pater es, *you are a father to him*; T. Ad. 126.

¹ Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut' (Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II.). 'He presently steps me a little higher' (Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.).

4. With **audiēns** two Datives sometimes occur, **dictō** dependent upon **audiēns**, and a personal Dative dependent upon **dictō audiēns**, and sometimes **dictō oboediēns** is used like **dictō audiēns** :

Nōbis dictō audientēs sunt, they are obedient to us ; C. Ver. 5, 82. Magistrō dictō oboediēns, obedient to his master ; Pl. Bac. 489.

Dative with Adjectives

434. Rule. — Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them :

Id militibus fuit iucundum, this was agreeable to the soldiers. Mihī difficile est dicere, it is difficult for me to speak. Atticus amicissimus Brūtō, Atticus most friendly to Brutus. Canis similis lupō, a dog similar to a wolf. Proximus sum egomet mihī, I am nearest of kin to myself. Locus castris idōneus, a place suitable for the camp. Id causae est aliēnum, this is foreign to the case. Universae Graeciae ūtile, useful for all Greece. Inūtilēs sunt bellō, they are useless for war.

1. The Indirect Object of an Adjective, like the Indirect Object of a Verb, generally answers the question *to or for whom?* or *to or for what?* See examples.

2. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those meaning *agreeable, dear, easy, faithful, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, useful*, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning,¹ and with verbals in **ilis** and **bilis**.

3. **Idem**, like adjectives of likeness, admits the Dative :

Nōn idem illis cēnsēre, not to think the same as they ; cf. C. Fam. 9, 6. Idem facit occidentī, he does the same as he who kills ; H. A. P. 467.

435. Other constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative :

1. The Accusative with a Preposition : **in**, **ergā**, **adversus**, with adjectives signifying *friendly, hostile*, etc., and **ad**, to denote the Object or End For Which, with adjectives signifying *useful, suitable, inclined*, etc. :

Perindulgēns in patrem, very kind to his father ; C. Or. 8, 81. Multās ad rēs perūtīlēs, very useful for many things ; C. Sen. 17.

¹ Such are *accommodātus, aequālis, aliēnus, amicus, inimicus, aptus, cārus, facilis, difficilis, fidēlis, infidēlis, finitimus, grātus, idōneus, iucundus, iniucundus, molestus, necessariū, nōtus, ignōtus, noxiū, pār, dispār, perniciosus, propinquus, proprius, salūtāris, similis, dissimilis, diversus, vicinus*, etc.

2. The Accusative with **propior**, **proximus**¹:

Propior montem, *nearer the mountain*. **Proximus** mare, *nearest the sea*.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Hūmānī nīl ā **mē** **aliēnum** putō, *I consider nothing human foreign to me*;
T. Heaut. 77. **Homīne** **aliēnissimū**, *most foreign to or from man*; C. Off. 1, 13.

4. The Genitive with adjectives meaning *like, unlike, belonging to, characteristic of*, and a few others²:

Cyri **similis** esse voluit, *he wished to be like Cyrus*; C. Brut. 81. **Populī** **Rōmānī** est **propria** **libertās**, *liberty is characteristic of the Roman people*;
C. Ph. 6, 7, 19.

NOTE. — With **similis** Plautus and Terence use only the Genitive; Ovid, Horace, and Vergil generally the Dative; Cicero generally the Dative of persons and either the Genitive or Dative of things.

Dative with Nouns and Adverbs

436. Rule. — The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative:

Iūstītia est **obtemperātiō** **lēgibus**, *justice is obedience to the laws*;
C. Leg. 1, 15. **Opulentō** **homīnī** **servitūs** **dūra** est, *serving a rich man is hard*;
Pl. Amph. 166. **Congruenter** **nātūrae** **vivere**, *to live in accord with nature*;
C. Fin. 3, 7. **Proximē** **hostiū** **castrīs**, *nearest to the camp of the enemy*;
Caes. C. 1, 72.

1. The Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not thus derived:

Tribūnicia **potestās**, **mūnimentum** **libertātī** *tribunician power, a defense for liberty*;
et. L. 3, 27.

2. For the Dative of Gerundives with Official Names, see 627, 2.

GENITIVE

437. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with *of*, and expresses various adjective relations. Indeed, many Genitives and adjectives are so entirely synonymous that they are often used the one for the other. Thus **bellī iūs** and **bellicum iūs**, *the right of war*, are often equivalent expressions.

¹ Like the Accusative after **propius** and **proximē**; see 420, 5.

² As **similis**, **dissimilis**, **assimilis**, **cōsimilis**, **pār**, **dispār**; **adfinis**; **proprius**, **sacer**; **contrārius**, **insuētus**, **superstes**, etc.

1. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, but it is also sometimes used with verbs and adverbs, especially with those in which the substantive idea is prominent.

438. The Genitive is used as follows:

1. As Attributive and Predicate Genitive, — General use; see **439**.
2. As Subjective and Objective Genitive; see **440**.
3. As Partitive Genitive; see **441**.
4. In Special Constructions; see **445**.
5. As Predicate Genitive of Price and Value; see **448**.
6. As Predicate Genitive with **Rēfert** and **Interest**; see **449**.
7. As Objective Genitive with Adjectives; see **450**.
8. As Objective Genitive with Verbs; see **454-458**.

Genitive with Nouns

439. Rule. — A noun used as an Attributive or Predicate of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Attributive Genitives. — *Xenophōntis libri, the books of Xenophon. Propter metum poenae, on account of fear of punishment. Vir cōsiliī māgnī, a man of great prudence. Hērodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Iūstitia est rēgina virtūtum, Justice is the queen of virtues.*

Predicate Genitives. — *Omnia hostium erant, all things were in the possession of (were of) the enemy; L. 6, 40, 17. Iūdicis est vērum sequi, to follow the truth is the duty of a judge. Māgnī erunt mihi tuae litterae, your letters will be of great value to me; C. Fam. 15, 15, 4.*

1. For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see **393**.
2. For the Predicate Dative, see **433**, 1.
3. A Predicate Genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a Predicate Adjective (**392**, 2): **hominis est = hūmānum est, it is the mark of a man, is human; stultī est = stultum est, it is foolish.** The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: **sapientis est, it is the part of a wise man, is wise.**
4. The Predicate Genitive of personal pronouns is not in good use, but its place is supplied by possessives in agreement with the subject — an illustration of the close relationship between predicate Genitives and predicate adjectives. Compare the following examples:

Est tuum vidēre quid agātur, it is your duty (yours) to see what is being done ; C. Mur. 38, 88. **Est cōsulis vidēre quid agātur, it is the duty of (is of) the consul to see what is being done ;** C. Mur. 2, 4.

5. The Predicate Genitive is sometimes supplied by a Genitive depending on a noun or adjective, meaning *mark, duty, part, business, characteristic, etc.*:

Id viri est officium, this is the part of a man ; in C. Tusc. 2, 21. **Est proprium stultitiae, aliōrum vitia cernere, it is characteristic of folly to perceive the faults of others ;** C. Tusc. 3, 30.

Attributive Genitive

440. The Attributive Genitive may be

1. A Subjective Genitive, designating the Subject or Agent of an action and the Author or Possessor of anything :

In sermōne hominum, in the conversation of men. **Deōrum immortālium cūrā, by the care of the immortal gods.** **Lamentātiōnem mātum perhorrēscō, I shudder at the lamentation of mothers.** **Xenophōntis librī, the books of Xenophon.**

NOTE 1. — That this Genitive really represents the subject of the action is readily seen if we express the implied action in the form of a sentence: *the conversation of men, men converse; the lamentation of mothers, mothers lament.*

NOTE 2. — Possessives are regularly used for the subjective Genitive of personal pronouns: **mea domus, my house ; nostra patria, our country.**

2. An Objective Genitive, designating the Object towards which the action or feeling is directed :

Meus amor glōriæ, my love of glory. **Crēscit amor nummī, the love of money increases.** **Tuī suī memoriā dēlectātur, he is delighted with your recollection of him ;** C. Aut. 13, 1, 3

NOTE 1. — For the objective Genitive, the Accusative with **in, ergā, or adversus** is sometimes used: **odium patris in filium, the father's hatred against his son ; odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of or towards the Romans.**

NOTE 2. — The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the objective Genitive of personal pronouns: **neque neglegentiā tuā neque odiō tuō, neither from disregard of you nor from hatred of you ;** T. Ph. 1016.

3. A Descriptive Genitive, or Genitive of Characteristic, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc. It is generally accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier :

Vir māgnae auctōritātis, *a man of great influence*. Mitis ingenii iuuenis, *a youth of mild disposition*. Vestis māgnī pretiī, *a garment of great value*. Corōna parvī ponderis, *a crown of small weight*. Exsilium decem annōrum, *an exile of ten years*.

NOTE 1. — For the Predicate Genitive of Price, see 448.

NOTE 2. — For the Ablative of Characteristic, see 473, 2.

4. A Defining or Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an appositive (393):

Virtūs continentiae, *the virtue of self-control*. Tellūs Ausoniae, *the land of Ausonia*. Nōmen carendī, *the word want* (of wanting); C. Tusc. 1, 36. Vōx voluptātis, *the word pleasure*; C. Fin. 2, 2, 6.

5. A Partitive Genitive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Pars flūminis Rhēni, *a part of the river Rhine*. Quis vestrum, *which of you?* Omnium sapientissimus, *the wisest of all men*. Nihil bonī, nīhil malī, *nothing (of) good, nothing bad*; C. Am. 4.

NOTE — The Partitive Genitive, though generally a noun or pronoun, may be an adjective used substantively in the Genitive singular of the Second Declension, as **bonī, malī**. Adjectives of the Third Declension, on the contrary, regularly agree with the partitive word, but in rare instances they are attracted into the Genitive by another Partitive Genitive:

Quicquam, nōn dicō civilis, sed hūmānī, *anything, I do not say civil, but human*; L. 5, 3.

441. The Partitive Genitive is common with nouns and pronouns used partitively:

Māxima pars hominum, *most men* (the largest part of). Māgnō cum pondere auri, *with a large quantity of gold*. Montēs auri pollicēns, *promising mountains of gold*. Ūnus quisque nostrum, *every one of us*. Cōnsulum alter, *one of the consuls*. Aliquid cōnsilii, *any wisdom* (anything of wisdom). Id temporis, *that (of) time*.

442. The Partitive Genitive is also common with numerals¹ and adjectives used substantively, especially with comparatives and superlatives:

Mille misit militum, *he sent a thousand soldiers*. Quattuor milia equitum, *four thousand (of) cavalry*. Hōrum omnium fortissimī, *the bravest of all these*. Prior hōrum in proeliō cecidit, *the former of these fell in battle*; N. 21, 1, 2. Aetātis extrēmum, *the end of life*; S. 90, 1.

¹ For the construction of ūnus, see 444, 1.

1. Pronouns and Adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive usually take the gender of the Genitive, but Predicate Superlatives, when thus used, generally agree with the subject :

Quis eōrum nōn ēgregius, *who of them is not eminent?* Sapientum octāvus, *the eighth of the wise men*; H. S. 2, 3, 296. Indus est omnium flūminum m̄ximus, *the Indus is the largest of all rivers*; C. N. D. 2, 52.

Here observe that **quis** and **octāvus** take the gender of the Genitive, but that the superlative **m̄ximus** agrees with the subject.

2. In the best prose, words meaning *the whole* do not admit the Partitive Genitive, but poets and late writers disregard the rule :

Omnēs omnium ōrdinū hominēs, *all men of all ranks*. Cuncta terrārum, *all lands*; H. 2, 1, 23. Macedonū om̄es, *all the Macedonians*; cf. L. 31, 45, 7.

Observe that in the first example, the adjectives are used regularly in agreement with their nouns, while in the last two they are used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though the partitive idea has entirely disappeared and the construction is partitive only in form.

3. In the best prose the Partitive Genitive is rarely used after any adjectives except comparatives and superlatives, but in the poets and late writers the use of this Genitive is greatly extended :

Sācte deūrum, *thou holy god*; V. 4, 576. Diērum fēstēs, *festal days*; H. S. 2, 2, 60. Strāta viārum = strātae viāe, *the paved streets*; V. 1, 422. Ad multum diēi, *till late in the day*; Liv. 22, 45.

4. With Nouns, **quisque**, *each*, *every*, and **uterque**, *each*, *both*, generally agree as adjectives, but with Pronouns they are generally used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though in the case of **uterque**, agreement is not uncommon :

Quisque imperātor, *every commander*. Uterque exercitus, *each army*. Quisque eōrum dē quāque rē, *each one of them in regard to every thing*; Caes. 1, 5. Utrique nostrum grātum, *acceptable to each of us*; C. Am. 4, 16. His utrisque persuāserant, *they had persuaded both of these*; Caes. 2, 16.

5. The Nenter of Pronouns and Adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of Persons :

Quicquid erat patrum, *whatever (of) senators there were*; L. 2, 35. Deūrum quicquid rēgit terrās, *whatever gods rule the world*; H. Ep. 5, 1. Quid hūc tantum hominū incēdunt, *why are so many men (so much of men) coming this way?* Pl. Poen. 619.

443. The Partitive Genitive is also used with a few Adverbs, especially with Adverbs of Quantity, Degree, and Place :

Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, enough of eloquence, of wisdom too little; S. C. 5, 4. *Iucis habent nimis, they have too much light*; O. F. 6, 115. *Maximè omnium nobilium Graecis litteris studuit, of all the nobles he most devoted himself to Greek letters*; C. Brut. 20, 78. *Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we?* C. C. 1, 4.

444. Instead of the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with *ante*, *inter*, or *apud*, or the Ablative with *ex*, *dē*, or *in*, is often used, especially when the Whole is denoted by a cardinal number, or by a noun in the singular:

Thalēs sapientissimus in septem fuit, Thales was the wisest of the seven; C. Leg. 2, 11, 26. *Quis ex tantā multitudīne, who of so great a multitude?* *Ante aliōs pulcherrimus omnēs, most beautiful of all* (before all others). *Apud Helvētiōs ditissimus, the richest among the Helvetii.*

1. In the best prose, *ūnus* is generally followed by the Ablative with *ex* or *dē*, but sometimes by the Partitive Genitive: *ūnus ex summis viris, one of the greatest of heroes*; *ūnus dē multis, one of the multitude*; *ūnus eōrum pontium, one of those bridges.*

Genitive in Special Constructions

445. The word upon which the Attributive Genitive depends is often omitted:

1. Especially when it has been expressed with a preceding Genitive. Then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case appropriate for the governing word:

Cōferre vitam Treboni cum Dolābellae, to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella; C. Ph. 11, 4, 9. *Nātūra hominis bēluis antecēdit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes*; cf. C. Off. 1, 30.

2. When it can be readily supplied, especially *aedēs*, or *templum* after a preposition, as *ad*, *ante*, *ā*, or *ab*:

Habitābat rēx ad Iovis, the king resided near the temple of Jupiter; L. 1, 41. *Hannibal annōrum novem, Hannibal, (a boy) nine years of age*; L. 21, 1. *Aberant biduū (viam), they were two days' journey distant*; C. Att. 5, 16.

446. Observe also the following constructions:

1. The Genitive of a Proper Name seems to depend directly on another proper noun in many cases in which we supply the word *son*, *daughter*, *husband*, *wife*, or *slave*:

Hasdrubal Giscōnis, *Gisco's Hasdrubal*, i.e., *Hasdrubal, Gisco's son*; L. 28, 12. **Hectoris Andromachē**, *Hector's Andromache*, i.e., *Hector's wife*; V. 8, 819. **Hūius vidēō Byrriam**, *I see his Byrria*, i.e., *his slave Byrria*; T. And. 357.

2. Two Genitives are sometimes used with the same noun, one subjective, the other objective or descriptive. To these a third Genitive is occasionally added:

Helvētiōrum infūriæ populi Rōmāni, *the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people*; cf. *Caes.* 1. 30. **Memmi odium potētiae nōbilitātis**, *Memmius's hatred of the power of the nobility*; cf. *S.* 80.

3. A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of **ipse**, **solus**, **unus**, or **omnis**:

Ad tuam ipsius amicitiam, *to your own friendship*; C. Ver. 3, 4, 7. **Meū unus oporē**, *by my aid alone*; C. Pis. 8, 6. **Tuum studium**: *dulcēscētis*, *your devotion as a young man*; C. Fam. 15, 13.

4. The Genitive is used with **instar** meaning *likeness*, *image*, but generally used in the sense of, *as large as*, *of the size of*, *equal to*:

Instar montis equum aedificant, *they construct a horse of the size of a mountain*; V. 2, 15. **Platō instar est omnium**, *Plato is worth them all*; C. Brut. 51, 191.

5. The Genitive is used with **prīdiē**, **postrīdiē**, **ergō**, and **tenuis**, nouns in origin, and as such governing the Genitive; **prīdiē** and **postrīdiē** are Locatives:

Prīdiē eius diēi, *on the day before that day*; *Caes.* 1. 47. **Postrīdiē eius diēi**, *on the day after that day*. **Virtūtis ergō**, *on the ground of merit*. **Urbium Corcyræ tenuis**, *as far as the cities of Corcyra*; L. 26, 24.

Predicate Genitive

447. The Predicate Genitive is generally Subjective or Descriptive, rarely Partitive. When used with transitive verbs, it is of course combined with the Direct Object. It is most common with **sum** and **factō**, but it also occurs with verbs of Seeming, Regarding, Valuing, etc.:

Est imperatōris superāre, *to conquer is the business of a commander*; *Caes.* C. 1, 72. **Ōram Rōmānae diciōnis fēcīt**, *he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule*; L. 21, 60. **Fīēs nōbīlium fontium**, *you will become (one) of the noble fountains*; H. 8, 13.

1. **Aequi, boni, and reliqui** occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as **aequi facere, aequi bonique facere, boni cōsulere, to take in good part, and reliqui facere, to leave:**

Aequi bonique faciō, I take it in good part; T. Heaut. 788. **Militēs nihil reliqui victis fēcere, the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished;** S. C. 11.

2. For the general use of the Predicate Genitive, see also 439.

Predicate Genitive of Price and Value

448. The Predicate Genitive of Price and Value is used with **sum** and with verbs of Valuing; especially with **aestimō, faciō, and putō:**

Parvi pretii est, he is of small value. Magni erunt mihi tuae litterae, your letters will be of great value to me. Patrem tuum plurimū fēcī, I prized your father most highly (made of the greatest value); C. Att. 16, 16, D. **Ea magni aestimantur, those things are highly valued. Honōrēs magni putāre, to deem honors of great value. Nōn flocci faciunt, they care not a straw (lock of wool);** Pl. Trin. 211. **Nōn habeo nauci Marsum, I do not regard Marsus of the least account;** C. Div. 1, 58. **Huius nōn faciam, I shall not care that (a snap) for it;** T. Add. 163.

1. The Genitive of Price or Value is generally an adjective, as **magnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; pluris, minōris; m̄ximī, plurimī, minimī**, but **pretii** is sometimes expressed as in the first example. **Nihilī** and a few other Genitives occur, chiefly in familiar discourse.

2. With **aestimō** the price and value are denoted either by the Genitive or by the Ablative:

Si prāta magnō aestimant; quantū est aestimanda virtūs, if they value meadows at a high price, at what price ought virtue to be valued? C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

3. In expressions of price and value, **pendō**, common in early Latin, is exceedingly rare in the classical period:

Quae parvi pendunt, which they regard of little value; T. Heu. 513. **Ea vōs parvi pendebātis,¹ those things you deemed of little importance;** S. C. 52, 9.

4. **Tantī, quantī, pluris, and minōris** are used as Genitives of Price even with verbs of Buying and Selling, though with these verbs price is generally expressed by the Ablative:

Canius emit tantū quantū Pythius voluit, Canius purchased them (the gardens) at as high a price as Pythius wished; cf. C. Off. 3, 14, 52. **Vendō meum nōn pluris, quam ceteri, fortasse minōris, I sell mine (my grain) no higher**

¹ An illustration of Sallust's fondness for archaic constructions.

than the others, perhaps lower. *Quantū emptae, purchased at what price?* *Parvō, at a low price;* H. S. 2, 8, 156. *Vēdidit hic aurō patriam, he sold his country for gold;* V. 6. 621.

5. For the Ablative of Price, see 478.

Predicate Genitive with *rēfert* and *Interest*

449. The Construction of *rēfert* and *interest* is as follows:

1. The Person or Thing¹ interested is denoted by the Genitive, but instead of the Genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun, the Ablative feminine of the Possessive is regularly used:

Neque rēfert cuiusquam, nor does it concern any one; Tac. An. 4, 83. *Quid Milōnis intererat, how was it the interest of Milo?* C. Mil. 13, 34. *Interest omnium, it is the interest of all.* *Salūtis commūnis interest, it concerns the public welfare.* *Tuā et meā interest, it is your interest and mine;* C. Fam. 16, 4, 4.

NOTE. — In a few cases the person is denoted by the Dative or by the Accusative with *ad*; chiefly with *rēfert*, which often omits the person:

Dic quid rēferat intrā nātūrae finēs viventi, tell what difference it makes to one living in accord with nature, H. S. 1, 1, 49. *Quid id ad me rēfert, how does that concern me?* Pl. Pers. 4, 3, 44.

2. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive, or clause, or by a neuter pronoun:

Interest omnium rectē facere, to do right is the interest of all; C. Fin. 2, 22, 72. *Nōn rēfert quam multōs librōs habeās, it matters not how many books you have;* cf. Sen. E. 5, 4. *Quid tuā id rēfert, how does that concern you?*

3. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an adverb, an adverbial Accusative, or a Genitive of Value:

Vestrā hōc māximē interest, this especially interests you; C. Sul. 25, 79. *Theodōrī nihil interest, it does not all interest Theodorus.* *Illud meā māgnī interest, that greatly interests me;* C. Att. 11, 22.

4. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with *ad*, rarely by the Dative:

Māgnī ad honōrem nostrum interest, for our honor it is of great importance; C. Fam. 16, 1, 1.

NOTE. — The most plausible explanation hitherto given of this construction is that the Genitive with *rēfert* depends upon *rē*, the Ablative of *rēs* contained in the verb, that the Possessive, *meā, tuā*, etc., agrees with the Ablative *rē*, and that *interest*, a later word, simply follows the analogy of *rēfert*.

¹ A thing is rarely so used unless personified.

Genitive with Adjectives

450. Rule. — Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning :

Avidi laudis fuistis, you have been very desirous of praise. Cupidus es glōriæ, you are fond of glory. Prūdēns rei militāris erat, he was skilled in military science; N. 9, 1, 2. Habētis ducem memorem vestri, oblitum sui, you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself; C. C. 4, 9, 19. Plēna Græcia poētārum fuit, Greece was full of poets. Gallia hominum fertilis fuit, Gaul was fruitful in men. Homō amantissimus patriæ, a man very fond of his country. Iuventus belli patiēns, youth capable of enduring the hardships of war; S. C. 7.

1. This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns. Compare the following : **cupidus glōriæ**, *desirous of glory*; **propter glōriæ cupiditatem**, *on account of the desire of glory*.

2. For the Genitive with **dignus** and **indignus**, see 481, 1.

451. This Objective Genitive is used,

1. With Adjectives denoting Desire, Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, and the like, with their contraries : **sapientiæ studiōsus**, *studious (student) of wisdom*; **peritus bellī**, *skilled in war*; **cōnsciū conitratōnis**, *cognizant of the conspiracy*; **insuētus nāvigandī**, *unacquainted with navigation* :

Quis est omnium tam ignārus rerū, who is so ignorant of all things? Omnēs inmemorem beneficii odērunt, all hate him who is unmindful of a favor; C. Off. 2, 18, 63.

NOTE. — **Certus** with the Genitive in the best prose occurs only in the phrase **certiōrem facere**, *to inform*, which takes either the Genitive or the Ablative with **dē**, though Caesar admits only the latter construction :

Certiōrem mē sui cōsiliī fēcit, he informed me of his plan; C. Att. 9, 2, 3. His dē rēbus certior factus, having been informed of these things.

2. With Adjectives denoting Participation, Characteristic, Guilt, Fullness, Mastery, etc., with their contraries : **ratiōnis particeps**, *endowed with (sharing) reason*; **ratiōnis expers**, *destitute of reason*; **manifestus rerū capitāliū**, *convicted of capital crimes* :

Erat Italia plēna Græcārum artium, Italy was full of Grecian arts; C. Arch. 3, 5. Viri propria est fortitūdō, fortitude is characteristic of a true man. Mei potēns sum, I am master of myself. Omnēs virtutis compotēs beātī sunt, all (who are) possessed of virtue are happy; C. Tusc. 5, 13, 39.

NOTE 1. — A few adjectives, as **similis**, **dissimilis**; **aliēnus**, **commūnis**; **contrārius** and **superstes** admit either the Genitive or the Dative; see 435, 4.

* Canis similis lupō, *a dog similar to a wolf*; C. N. D. 1, 35, 97. Cŷrī similis esse voluit, *he wished to be like Cyrus*; C. Brut. 81, 282.

NOTE 2. — **Cōnsciū** may take an Objective Genitive in connection with the Dative of a personal or reflexive pronoun:

Mēns sibi cōnsciā rēctī, *a mind conscious (to itself) of rectitude*.

3. With Present Participles used as Adjectives.

Est amāns sui virtūs, *virtue is fond of itself*; C. Am. 26, 98. Vir amantissimus rei pūblicae, *a man very fond of the republic*. Virtūs efficiēns est voluptātis, *virtue is productive of pleasure*; cf. C. Or. 3, 23. Appetentēs glōriæ fuistis, *you have been desirous of glory*.

NOTE. — Observe the difference in meaning between a participle with an objective Genitive and the same participle with a direct object. **Amāns patriae**, *fond of his country*, represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, **amāns patriam**, *loving his country*, designates a particular instance or act.

452. In poetry and in late prose, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used:

1. With Verbals in **āx** and with Adjectives of almost every variety of meaning, simply to define their application:

Fugāx ambiōnis eram, *I was inclined to shun ambition*; O. Tr. 4, 10. Tenāx prōpositi, *steadfast of purpose*; H. 3, 5. Aevi mātūrus, *mature in age*; V. 5, 78. Sēri studiōrum, *late in studies*; H. 5, 1, 10. Aeger animi,¹ *afflicted in spirit*; L. 1, 58. Fidēs animi, *confident in spirit*; V. 2, 61.

2. With a few Adjectives to denote Separation, or Cause, like the Ablative:

Liber labōrum, *released from his labors*; H. A. P. 212. Integer vitæ scele-
risque pūrus, *of upright life and innocent of crime*; H. 1, 22. Nōtus animi
paterni, *distinguished for paternal affection*; H. 2, 2.

453. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive sometimes admit other constructions. Compare the following examples:

1. Genitive, or Accusative with **ad** or **in**:

Avidi laudis fuistis, *you have been very desirous of praise*; C. Man. 3, 7. Avidi ad pūgnam, *eager for battle*; L. 7, 23. Avidus in novās rēs, *eager for new things*; cf. L. 22, 21.

¹ Probably a Locative in origin, as **animis**, not **animōrum**, is used in similar instances in the plural.

2. Genitive, Dative, or Accusative with **ad** :

Hominēs Insuētī labōris, *men unaccustomed to labor*; Caes. 7, 80. Īnsuētus mōribus Rōmānīs, *unaccustomed to Roman manners*; cf. L. 23, 18. Īnsuētus ad pūgnam, *unaccustomed to battle*; L. 31, 35.

3. Genitive, Dative, or Ablative with **dē** or **in** :

Cōnsciūs coniūrātiōnis, *cognizant of the conspiracy*; S. C. 37. Huic facinori cōnsciūs, *aware of this crime*; C. Cael. 21, 52. Iis dē rēbus cōnsciūs, *aware of these things*; cf. C. Att. 2, 24.

4. Genitive, Accusative with **ad**, or Ablative with or without **in** :

Prūdēns rei militāris, *skilled in military science*; N. 9, 1. Prūdēns ad cōnsilia, *wise for counsel*; C. Font. 15, 33. Prūdēns in iūre civili, *learned in civil law*; C. Am. 2.

5. The Genitive, or the Ablative :

Mare refertum praedōnum, *a sea full of pirates*; C. Rab. P. 8, 20. Domus referta vāsīs Corinthiīs, *a house full of Corinthian vases*; C. Rosc. A. 46, 133.

Genitive with Verbs

454. Rule. — Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting — **memini**, **reminiscor**, and **obliviscor** — regularly take the Objective Genitive when used of Persons, but either the Genitive or the Accusative when used of Things :

Vivōrum meminī nec Epicūri licet obliviscī, *I remember the living and it is not allowable to forget Epicurus*; C. Fin. 5, 1. Oblitus sum meī, *I have forgotten myself*; T. Eun. 306. Animus meminit praeteritōrum, *the soul remembers the past*; C. Div. 1, 30. Beneficia meminērunt, *they remember favors*; C. Plane. 33. Reminisci virtūtis Helvētiōrum, *to remember the valor of the Helvetii*; cf. Caes. 1, 13. Eās (rēs) reminisci, *to remember those things*; C. Sen. 21, 75. Veteris contumēliae oblivisci, *to forget the ancient disgrace*; Caes. 1, 14. Totam causam oblitus est, *he forgot the whole case*; C. Brut. 60, 217.

1. Observe that **memini**, **reminiscor**, and **obliviscor** admit a double construction. As transitive verbs they may take the Accusative, but by virtue of their signification, *to be mindful of*, *to be forgetful of*, they may take the Genitive; **reminiscitur** = *memor est*; **obliviscitur** = *inmemor est*. The close relationship between the Genitive with these verbs and the Genitive with adjectives is readily seen in the following examples :

Memorēs virtūtis tuae, *mindful of your valor*; C. Fam. 1, 7, 2. Reminiscētur virtūtis Helvētiōrum, *that he should remember the valor of the Helvetii*; Caes. 1, 13.

2. The Accusative may be used of a person remembered by a contemporary or by an eyewitness :

Cinnam meminī, *I remember Cinna* ; C. Ph. 5, 6.

3. **Meminī**, *I make mention of*, may take the Ablative with **dē** :

Meministī dē exsulibus, *you make mention of the exiles* ; C. Ph. 2, 36.

4. **Venit mihi** (tibi, etc.) **in mentem** = *reminiscor*, generally takes the Genitive, but sometimes the Nominative, though in Cicero only **rēs**, or a neuter pronoun or adjective :

Venit mihi Platōnis in mentem, *the recollection of Plato comes to my mind* ; C. Fin. 5, 1. Nōn venit in mentem pūna, *does not the battle occur to your mind* ? L. 8, 5. Ea tibi in mentem veniunt, *those things occur to your mind* ; C. Att. 15, 11.

455. Recordor, *I recall*, when used of Persons, takes the Ablative with **dē**, but when used of Things, it almost always takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive :

Recordāre dē cēteris, *bethink yourself of the others* ; C. Sull. 2, 5. Ut triumphōs recordentur, *so that they may recall triumphs* ; C. Sen. 5, 13. Flāgi-tiōrum suōrum recordābitur, *he will recall his base deeds* ; C. Pis. 6, 1^o.

Accusative and Genitive

456. Rule. — Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing, and verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, Acquitting, take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, Charge, etc.:

Ipse tē veteris amicitiae commonefecit, *he himself reminded you of your old friendship* ; cf. Ad. Her. 4, 24, 33. Meōrum mē miseriarum commōnēs, *you remind me of my misfortunes*. Eum tū accūsās avaritiæ, *do you accuse him of avarice* ? C. Flac. 33, 33. Accūsātus est prōditionis, *he was accused of treason*. Levitatīs plerōsque convincunt, *they convict most men of fickleness*. Ut capitis hominem innocentissimum condemnārent, *so that they condemned a most innocent man on a capital charge* ; C. Or. 1, 54, 233. Iūdex absolvit iniūriarum eum, *the judge acquitted him on a charge of assault*.

1. Instead of the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, etc., the Ablative with **dē** or the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective is often used. This is the common construction with **moneō** and its compounds :

Dē quō vōs admonui, *of which I have reminded you* ; C. Man. 15, 45. Illud mē admonēs, *you admonish me of that* ; C. Att. 9, 9, 2. Sī id nōn mē accūsās, *if you do not accuse me of that* ; Pl. Trin. 96.

2. With verbs of Accusing, etc., the Genitive with **nōmine**, **crimine**, **iūdiçiō**, or some similar word is sometimes used. This may be the original construction, and if so, it is a sufficient explanation of the Genitive with these verbs.¹ Compare the following examples :

Nē quem innocentem iūdiçiō capitis arcessās, that you should not arraign an innocent man on a capital charge ; C. Or. 2, 14, 51. Inimicum frātris capitis arcessit, he arraigned his brother's enemy on a capital charge ; Ad Her. 1, 11, 18.

NOTE. — Latin verbs of Accusing, when they mean simply to find fault with, to complain of, take the Accusative of the crime, or fault, as in English.

Inertiam accūsās adulescentium, you complain of the indolence of the young men ; C. Or. 58, 246.

3. With verbs of Condemning, the Penalty is generally expressed by the Ablative, with or without **dē**, or by the Accusative with a preposition, usually **ad**. The Ablative is regularly used when the penalty is a fine of a definite sum of money :

Pecūniā multātus est, he was condemned to pay a fine in money ; N. 1, 7, 6. Si illum morte multāssem, if I had condemned him to death. Tertiā parte agrī damnātī, condemned to forfeit a third of their land. Multōs ad bestias condemnāvit, he condemned many to the wild beasts ; Suet. Cal. 27.

4. Notice the following special expressions : **dē māiestātis damnāre**, to condemn for high treason ; **dē vī damnāre**, to condemn for assault ; **dē pecūniis repetundis postulāre**, to prosecute for extortion ; **inter sicāriōs damnāre**, to convict of homicide ; **vōtī damnātus**, condemned to fulfill a vow = having obtained a wish ; **ad metalla condemnātus**, condemned to the mines.

Genitive with Verbs of Feeling

457. Rule. — **Misereor** and **miserēscō** take the Objective Genitive : **miseret**, **paenitet**, **piget**, **pudet**, and **taedet** take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive² of the Object which produces the feeling :

¹ Observe, however, that the use of the Genitive with these verbs in Latin accords entirely with the English idiom ; as, *he was accused of treason*.

² The Genitive with some of these verbs of feeling doubtless follows the analogy of other constructions, in which the Genitive depends on a noun or adjective, expressed or understood, but with others it seems to depend directly on the substantive idea suggested by the verbs themselves. Thus **taedet** readily suggests its exact equivalent **taedium capit**. Indeed, Seneca's **taedium eum vitæ capit**, in which **vitæ** depends upon **taedium**, is equivalent to **eum vitæ taedet**.

Miserēmini sociōrum, have pity on our allies; C. Ver. 1, 28, 72. *Arcadii miserēscite rēgis, pity the Arcadian king*; V. 8, 578. *Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them* (pity for, or of them moves us); C. Mil. 34, 92. *Nostri nōsinet paenitet, we are dissatisfied with ourselves*, T. Ph. 172. *Frātris mē piget, I am grieved at my brother. Mē stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Mē civitātis mōrum taedet, I am tired of the manners of the state.*

1. **Miserēscō** belongs to poetry.

2. **Miseror** and **commiseror**, *I pity, deplore*, take the Accusative in the best prose:

Miserantur commūnem Galliae fortūnam, they deplore the common fortune of Gaul; Caes. 7, 1, 5.

3. The impersonal verbs **miseret**, **paenitet**, etc., sometimes admit an impersonal subject, as an Infinitive or clause, rarely a neuter pronoun or **nihil**:

Neque mē vixisse paenitet, nor am I sorry to have lived; C. Sen. 23, 84. *Nōn tē haec pudet, do not these things put you to shame?* T. Ad. 151.

4. **Pudet** sometimes takes the Genitive of the person in whose presence one has a feeling of shame or unworthiness:

Mē tuī pudet, I am ashamed in your presence; T. Ad. 698.

5. Like **miseret** are sometimes used **miserēscit**, **commiserēscit**, and **miserētur**; like **taedet**, **pertaesum est** and, in early Latin, **distaedet** and a few other rare words. In Suetonius **pertaesus** occurs with the Accusative.

Genitive with Special Verbs

458. In certain Special Constructions, largely colloquial, or poetical in their origin,¹ many verbs by analogy occasionally admit the Genitive, or if transitive, the Accusative and Genitive:

1. Some verbs denoting Desire, Emotion, or Feeling, like adjectives and verbs of the same general meaning and construction:

Cupiant tuī, they desire you; Pl. Mil. 963. *Nē tuī quidem testimōnii veritus, regarding not even your testimony*; C. Att. 8, 4. *Ego animi² pendeō, I am uncertain in mind*; cf. C. Leg. 1, 3. *Discrucior animi², I am troubled in spirit. Dēsipliēbam mentis, I was out of my senses.*

2. Some Verbs of Plenty and Want, as **compleō**, **impleō**, **egeō**, **indigeō**, like adjectives of the same general meaning (**451, 2**):

¹ Greek influence may also be recognized in some of them.

² **Animi** in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as **animis**, not **animōrum**, is used in the same way in the plural.

Virtus exercitātōnis indiget, virtue requires exercise; cf. C. Fin. 8, 15. *Egeō cōsiliī, I need counsel*; C. Att. 7, 22. *Mē complēvit formīdinis, he has filled me with fear*; Pl. Men. 901.

3. Some verbs denoting Mastery or Participation, — **potior, adipiscor, rēgnō**, — like adjectives of similar meaning (451, 2):

Partis Siciliæ potitus est, he became master of a part of Sicily; N. 10, 5. *Rēgnāvit populōrum, he was king of the peoples*; H. 3, 30.

4. In the poets, a few verbs which usually take the Ablative of Separation or Cause admit the Genitive:

Mē labōrum levās, you relieve me of my labors; Pl. Rud. 247. *Abstinetō irārum, abstain from quarrels*; H. 3, 27, 69. *Dēsine querellārum, desist from your lamentations*. *Mirārī bellī labōrum, to wonder at warlike achievements*. *Damnī infectī prōmittere, to become responsible for possible damage*; cf. C. Top. 4, 22.

NOTE. — The Genitive in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek, occurs in three or four isolated examples in the Latin poets, but it is not found in Terence, Vergil, or Horace:

Ō mihi nūntiū beātī, O the glad tidings to me; Catul. 9, 5.

ABLATIVE

459. The Latin Ablative performs the duties of three cases originally distinct:

- I. Ablative Proper, denoting the relation **From**;
- II. Instrumental, denoting the relation **With, By**;
- III. Locative, denoting the relation **In, At**.

NOTE. — This threefold nature of the Latin Ablative gives us a basis for a general classification, at once scientific and practical, although in the course of the development of the language so many new applications of these original elements were made that it is sometimes impossible to determine with certainty to which of them a given construction owes its origin.

I. Ablative Proper

460. — The Ablative Proper includes:

1. Ablative of Separation; see 461.
2. Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, etc.; see 467.
3. Ablative of Comparison; see 471.

ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION

461. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition — **ā**, **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** — when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with **ab**, **dē**, **dīs**, **sē**, or **ex** :

Legiōnēs abdūcis ā Brūtō, you alienate the legions from Brutus; C. Ph. 10, 3, 6. Caedem ā vōbis dēpellēbam, I was warding off slaughter from you. Plēbs ā patribus sēcēssit, the common people seceded from the patricians. Dē forō discessimus, we withdrew from the forum. Caesar cōpiās suās ē castris ēdūxit, Caesar led his forces out of the camp; Caes. 1. 50. Ex oppidō fūgit, he fled out of the town.

462. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town or is used after a verb meaning *to relieve, free, deprive, need, or be without* :

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, Demaratus fled from Corinth; C. Tusc. 5, 87. Rōmā accēperam litterās, I had received a letter from Rome. Qui Narbōne reditus, what a return from Narbo! C. Ph. 2, 30, 76. Levā mē hōc oncre, relieve me from this burden; C. Fam. 8, 12, 3. Magnō mē metu liberābis, you will free me from great fear. Mūrus dēfēnsōribus nūdātus est, the wall was stripped of its defenders; Caes. 2, 6. Nōn egeō medicinā, I do not need a remedy. Vacāre culpā māgnū est sōlāciū, to be free from fault is a great comfort; C. Fam. 7, 3, 4.

1. With the Ablative of Separation, the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: **dē forō**, *from the forum*; **ex oppidō**, *out of the town*; but **metū liberāre**, *to free from fear*; **vacāre culpā**, *to be free from fault*.

2. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast, regularly after **longē** :

Longē ab Athēnis esse, to be far from Athens; Pl. Pers. 151.

3. The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town itself, is meant :

Discessit ā Brundisiō, he departed from Brundisium (i.e. from the port); Caes. C. 8, 24.

4. Many Names of Islands and the Ablatives **domō**, **humō**, and **rūre**, are used like names of towns :

Lēmnō adveniō Athēnās, *from Lemnos I come to Athens*; Pl. Truc. 91. **Cum domō profūgisset**, *when he had fled from home*; C. Brut. 89, 306. **Videō rūrē redeuntē senem**, *I see the old man returning from the country*. **Vix oculōs attollit humō**, *she hardly raises her eyes from the ground*.

ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION WITH SPECIAL VERBS

463. With **moveō**, **cēdō**, and **pellō** in special expressions the Ablative of Separation is used without a preposition:

Locō ille mōtus est, *he was dislodged from his position*; C. C. 2, 1. **Eundem vidi cēdentē Italiā**, *I saw the same man leaving Italy*; C. Ph. 10, 4, 8. **Civem pellere possēssiōnibus cōnātus est**, *he attempted to drive a citizen from his possessions*; C. Mil. 27, 74.

464. With many verbs the Ablative of Separation is used, sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition. -

Dē prōvinciā dēcessit, *he withdrew from the province*; C. Ver. 2, 20, 48. **Dēcēdēns prōvinciā**, *withdrawing from the province*; C. Lig. 1, 2. **Expellet ex patriā**, *will he banish them from the country?* **Mē patriā expulerat**, *he had driven me from the country*.

1. Note also the expressions **ab oppidīs prohibēre**, *to keep from the towns*; **suis finibus prohibēre**, *to keep out of their territory*, **dēpellere ā vōbīs**, **dē prōvinciā**, *to drive away from you, from the province*; **tōtā Siciliā dēpellere**, *to drive from the whole of Sicily*.

2. **Arceō** generally takes the Ablative with a preposition, but at variance with general usage it sometimes omits the preposition when used in a purely local sense:

Tū hunc ā tuis templis arcēbis, *you will keep him from your temples*; C. C. 1, 18, 33. **Tē illis aedibus arcēbit**, *he will keep you from this abode*; C. Ph. 2, 40, 104.

3. **Interdicō** regularly takes the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing:

Galliā Rōmānis interdixit, *he forbade the Romans the use of Gaul*; cf. Caes. 1, 46.

465. With adjectives meaning *free from, destitute of*, the Ablative of Separation is used sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition:

Haec loca ab arbitris libera sunt, *these places are free from spectators*; cf. C. Att. 15, 16. **Animus liber cūrā**, *a mind free from care*; C. Fin. 15, 49.

1. Notice also the following expressions: **nūdus ā propinquis**, *destitute of relatives*; **nūdus praesidiō**, *destitute of defense*; **vacuus ab dēfēnsōribus**, *without defenders*; **gladius vāgnā vacuus**, *a sword without a sheath*.

2. **Expers** generally takes the Genitive, but sometimes the Ablative:

Omnis eruditōnis expers fuit, *he was destitute of all learning*; cf. C. Or. 2, 1. **Omnēs fortūnis expertēs sumus**, *we are all destitute of fortunes*; S. C. 83.

3. Some adjectives with this meaning take the Genitive; see 451, 2.

466. In the poets and late writers the Ablative of Separation, even in a purely local sense, is often used without a preposition:

Columbae caelō vēnere volantēs, *the doves came flying from the heavens*; V. 6, 190. **Nōn poterit vērō distinguere falsum**, *he will not be able to distinguish the false from the true*; H. E. 1, 10, 20. **Cecidēre caelō lapidēs**, *stones fell from the heavens*; L. 1, 31.

1. Notice also the following expressions from Vergil and Horace: **Lyciā missus**, *sent from Lycia*; **cadere nūbibus**, *to fall from the clouds*; **carceribus missus**, *sent forth from the barriers*; **Uēns equō**, *falling from his horse*.

ABLATIVE OF SOURCE

467. Rule. — The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition, — **ā, ab, dē, ē, or ex**:

Source in General. — **Ab his sermō oritur**, *with (from) these the conversation begins*; C. Am. 1, 5. **Hōc audiui dē patre meō**, *this I have heard from my father*. **Appellāta est ex virō virtus**, *virtue was named from vir, a man*. **Ex invidiā laborāvit**, *he suffered from unpopularity*; C. Clu. 71, 202.

Agency. — **Ab his amātur**, *by these he is loved*. **Mōns a Labiēnō tenētur**, *the mountain is held by Labienus*, Caes. 1, 22.

Parentage or Ancestry. — **Ex mē nātus es**, *you are my son*. **Oriundi ab Sabinis**, *descended from the Sabines*; L. 1, 27.

Material. — **Erat ex fraude factus**, *he was made of fraud*. **Pōcula ex aurō**, *cups of gold*; C. Ver. 4, 26, 62.

468. The Ablative of the Independent Agent, or the Author of an action, takes the preposition **ā** or **ab**:

Rēx ab suis appellātur, *he is called king by his own men*. **Nōn est cōsentāneum vinci ā voluptāte**, *it is not meet to be overcome by pleasure*.

1. When anything is personified and treated as the agent of an action, the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** may be used as in the second example above.

2. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a person, regarded not as the author of the action, but as the means by which it is effected :

Cornua Numidīs firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians.

3. The Accusative with **per** may be used of the person through whom, through whose agency or help, the action is effected :

Ab Oppiānicō per Fabriciōs factus, made by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricii; cf. C. Clu. 23, 62.

NOTE. — Compare these three kindred constructions for the names of persons : **ab Oppiānicō**, *by Oppianicus*, the author of the action ; **per Fabriciōs**, *through the Fabricii*, i.e. through their agency or help ; and **Numidīs**, *with Numidians*, used as the means of the action.

469. The Ablative of Parentage and Ancestry is generally used

1. With **ā** or **ab**, in designating Remote Ancestry :

Belgae sunt orti ab Germānīs, the Belgians originated from the Germans; cf. Caes. 2, 4. Oriundi ex Etruscīs, descended from the Etruscans.

2. Without a preposition with the verb **nāscor** and a few Perfect Participles, as **nātus**, **prōgnātus**, **ortus**, and in poetry and late prose, with **ēditus**, **genitus**, **satus**, etc. :

Si parentibus nāti sint humilibus, if they have been born of humble parents; C. Am. 19, 70. Nōbili genere nāti sunt, they were born of a noble race; C. Ver. 5, 70, 180. Rēgis nepōs, filiā ortus, the grandson of the king, born of his daughter; L. 1, 32, 1. Ēdite rēgibus, thou descendant of kings; H. 1, 1. Dis genite, thou descendant of gods; V. 9, 642. Satae Peliā, the daughters of Pelias; O. M. 7, 322.

470. The Ablative of Material generally takes **ē** or **ex**, and is used with verbs or participles, and sometimes with nouns :

Erat ex fraude factus, he was made of fraud. Homō ex animō cōstat et corpore, man consists of a soul and a body; cf. C. N. D. 1, 35. Vās ex unā gemmā, a vase from a single gem; C. Ver. 4, 27, 62.

1. The Ablative of Material is often used without a preposition in poetry, and sometimes even in prose :

Aere cavō clipeus, a hollow shield of bronze; cf. V. 8, 286. Pictās abiete puppēs, painted sterns of fir. Cōstat tōta orātiō membris, the whole discourse is made up of members.

ABLATIVE WITH COMPARATIVES

471. Rule. — Comparatives without **quam** are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est virtūte¹ amābilius, nothing is more lovely than virtue. C. Am. 8. *Nihil habet iucundius vitā,¹ he considers nothing more agreeable than life.* *Amicitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better.* *Nihil lacrimā citius arēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear.*

1. Comparatives with **quam** are followed by the Nominative or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, better is a sure peace than a hoped-for victory; L. 30, 30. *Nēmīnem aequiōrem reperiet quam mē, he will find no one more just than (he) will find me.* *Equam meliōrem habet quam tuus est, he has a better horse than yours is;* C. Inv. 1, 31, 5.

2. After **quam** the second of the two nouns compared is sometimes omitted:

Themistocli nōmen quam Solōnis est illūstrius, the name of Themistocles is more illustrious than that of Solon; cf. C. Off. 1, 1, 75.

3. The Ablative is used chiefly in negative sentences. It is freely used for **quam** with a Nominative or Accusative, regularly so for **quam** with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the third example under the rule. In other cases **quam** is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

4. After **plūs, minus, amplius, or longius**, in expressions of number and quantity, **quam** is often omitted without influence upon the construction; sometimes also after **māior, minor**, etc.:

Tēcum plūs annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year; C. Quinc. 12, 41. *Minus duo millia effūgerunt, less than two thousand escaped;* L. 24, 16. *Nōn amplius novem annōs nātus, not more than nine years old;* cf. N. 23, 2, 3.

5. Instead of an Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case — as **ante, prae, praeter, or suprā** — is sometimes used, especially in poetry:

Ante aliōs immaniōr, more monstrous than (before) the others; V. 1, 347.

6. In poetry and in conversational prose, **alius**, involving a comparison, *other than*, is sometimes used with the Ablative, but in the best prose its regular construction is **alius ac** or **atque, alius quam, or alius nisi**:

¹ This Ablative furnishes the standard of comparison — that from which one starts. Thus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. *Virtūte* = *quam virtūs*; *vitā* = *quam vitam* (*habet*).

Putāre alium sapiente bonoque beātum, *to consider any other than the wise and good happy*; cf. H. E. 1, 16, 20. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesita est, *nothing but peace was sought*; cf. C. Off. 1, 23, 80.

7. **Quam prō**, denotes that the two objects compared are out of proportion to each other:

Minor caedēs quam prō tantā victōriā fuit, *the slaughter was small in comparison with the victory*; 1. 10, 14, 21.

8. Note the following special uses of the Ablative: **plūs aequō**, *more than is fair*; **plūs iūstō**, *more than is proper*:

Celerius omni opīniōne vēnit, *he came sooner than any one expected*; cf. Caes. 2, 3. Id spē omnium sērius fuit, *this was later than all hoped it would be*; L. 2, 3.

9. In rare instances, mostly poetical, a few verbs and adverbs involving comparison — as **mālō**, **praestō**, **aequē**, **adaequē** — admit the Ablative:

Nūllōs his māllem lūdōs spectāsse, *no games would I prefer to have seen rather than these*; H. S. 2, 8, 79. Mē aequē fortūnātus, *equally fortunate with me*; Pl. Cure. 141.

10. With comparatives the Measure of Difference — the amount **by which** one thing surpasses another — is denoted by the Ablative (479):

Hibernia dimidiō minor quam Britannia, *Ireland smaller by one-half than Britain*.

II. Instrumental Ablative

472. The Instrumental Ablative includes

1. Ablative of Association; see 473.
2. Ablative of Cause; see 475.
3. Ablative of Means; see 476 and 477.
4. Ablative of Price; see 478.
5. Ablative of Difference; see 479.
6. Ablative of Specification; see 480.

ABLATIVE OF ASSOCIATION

473. **Rule.** — The Ablative of Association is used

1. To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition **cum**:

Cum patre habitābat, *she was living with her father*. Cum his armis ēruptiōnem fecerunt, *with these arms they made a sally*; Caes. 2, 33.

2. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive :

Flūmen ripīs praeŕuptīs, a stream with precipitous banks ; Caes. 6, 7. *Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest worth.* *Catō singulārī fuit industriā, Cato was a man of remarkable industry ;* N. 24, 8.

NOTE 1. — The Ablative of Characteristic and the Genitive of Characteristic supplement each other. The Genitive is generally used to designate permanent characteristics, as Kind, Size, Weight, Value, and the like. In other cases the Ablative is generally used.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Characteristic may be either Attributive, as in the first two examples, or Predicative, as in the last example.

3. To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance.¹ It then takes the preposition **cum**, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive :

Cum silentiō auditī sunt, they were heard in silence. *Templum magnā cūrā cūstōdiunt, they guard the temple with great care.* *Epulābatur inōre Persārū, he feasted in the style of the Persians.* *Catō summā cum glōriā vīxit, Cato lived with the highest glory ;* C. Ver. 5, 79, 180.

NOTE. — The Ablative of Manner often takes **cum**, even when modified by an adjective, as in the last example.

474. The Ablative of Association is used without **cum** in a few special instances, as follows :

1. A few Ablatives, perhaps involving the idea of Means: **arte**, according to art, skillfully ; **clāmōre**, with a shout ; **cōnsiliō**, on purpose ; **ōrdine**, in an orderly way :

Nēmō solitus viā dicere, no one accustomed to speak properly ; cf. C. Brut. 12, 46. *Aut vī aut fraude fit, it is done either by violence or by fraud ;* cf. C. Off. 1, 18, 41.

NOTE. — The Accusative with **per** sometimes denotes Manner: **per vim**, violently ; **per fraudem**, fraudulently ; **per lūdum**, sportively.

2. The Ablative of Association is sometimes used without **cum**, after verbs meaning to mingle or to join together, as **cōfundō**, **iungō**, **misceō**, and their compounds ; also whenever the idea of means is involved, especially in military operations :

¹ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative — the first designating an attendant person or thing, the second an attendant quality, the third an attendant circumstance.

Siculis cōfunditur undis, it mingles with the Sicilian waters; V. 2, 696.
Improbitas scelere iuncta, depravity joined with crime; C. Or. 2, 58, 287. *Gravitate mixtus lepōs, pleasantry united with dignity; C. R. P. 2, 1.* *Ingenti exercitū profectus, having set out with a large army; L. 7, 9.*

NOTE 1. — In military language the Ablative of Association takes **cum**, if without modifiers or modified only by a numeral, otherwise it is used without **cum**: **cum exercitū**, but **ingenti exercitū**.

NOTE 2. — Instead of the Ablative of Association, the Dative is sometimes used with verbs denoting Union or Contention:

Sapientia iuncta eloquentiae, wisdom united to eloquence; cf. C. Or. 3, 85, 142.
Solus tibi certat, he alone competes with you; V. E. 5, 3.

3. A special use of the Ablative of Association is seen with **faciō**, **fiō**, and **sum** in such expressions as the following:

Quid hoc homine faciās, what will you do with this man? C. Ver. 2, 16.
Quid tē futurum est, what will become of you? C. Ver. 2, 64, 155.

NOTE. — The Ablative with **dē** occurs in nearly the same sense:

Sed dē fratre quid fiet, but what will become of my brother? T. Ad. 996.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE

475. Rule. — The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used **without** a preposition: ¹

Gubernatoris ars utilitate laudatur, the pilot's art is praised because of its usefulness; C. Fin. 1, 13. *Quisque gloria ducitur, every one is influenced by glory.* *Luxuria civitas laborabat, the state was suffering from luxury.* *Nimio gaudio desipiebam, I was wild with (from) excessive joy.* *Regni cupiditate inductus coniurationem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy.* *Timore perterriti ad Rhenum contendērunt, moved by fear, they hastened towards the Rhine.* *Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds; N. 1, 7, 5.*

1. When the cause is fear, anger, hatred, etc., it is often combined with a Perfect Participle, as in the fifth and sixth examples.

2. **Causā** and **gratiā**, as Ablatives of Cause, are regularly limited by the Genitive or by a possessive or interrogative pronoun:

¹ The Ablative of Cause seems to have been developed in part from the Instrumental case and in part from the true Ablative.

Quem honoris grātiā nōminō, whom I name as a mark of honor ; C. Rosc. A. 2, 6. **Vestrā hōc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account ;** C. Or. 1, 85, 104. **Quā grātiā iussī, for what purpose did I give the order ?** T. Eun. 99.

3. Examine the following specimens of the Ablative of Cause, more commonly limited by an adjective or Genitive, **cōnsuētūdine, iūre, lēge, sententiā,** and Ablatives in **ū** from verbal nouns: **cōnsuētūdine suā, in accordance with his own custom ; meā sententiā, according to or in my opinion ; aliōrum hortātū, at the request of others ; hortātū suō, at his own request ; populi iussū, at the bidding of the people.**

4. Instead of the Ablative of Cause, the Ablative with **ā, ab, dē, ē. ex,** is sometimes used to emphasize the idea of Source, from which Cause was so readily developed, as **ex cōnsuētūdine suā, in accordance with their custom ; ex sententiā tuā, in accordance with your wish :**

Mare ā sōle collūcet, the sea gleams with the light of the sun (from the sun). **Ex vulneribus periēre, they perished of their wounds.**

5. The Ablative with **prae** in classical Latin generally denotes a Hindrance or an Obstacle :

Nōn prae lacrimis possum scribere, I cannot write on account of my tears.

ABLATIVE OF MEANS

476. Rule.—The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition :

Ipse suā manū fēcit, he did it himself with his own hand. **Cornibus tauri sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.** **Sōl omnia lūce collūstrat, the sun illumines all things with its light.** **Terra vestita floribus, the earth covered with flowers.** **Lacte atque pecore vivunt, they live upon milk and flesh ;** Caes. 4, 1. **Aurēliā viā profectus est, he went by the Aurelian road ;** C. C. 2, 4. **Portā Capēnā Rōmam ingressus, having entered Rome by the Porta Capena ;** L. 26, 10.

1. The Ablative of Means is used not only with verbs, but also with a few adjectives, as **contentus, praeditus, and frētus :**

Domō suā rēgiā contentus nōn fuit, he was not satisfied with his royal palace ; C. Ver. 5, 31, 30. **Homō summō ingeniō praeditus, a man endowed with the highest abilities.** **Neque hūmānis cōsiliis frētus, nor depending upon human counsels ;** C. C. 2, 13.

2. **Addicō** with the Ablative of Means forms a very common circumlocution: **honōre adficere = honōrāre, to honor ; cruciātū adficere, to torture :**

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Omnēs laetitiā adfcit, he gladdens all; *Caes. 5, 48. Adfcitur beneficiō, he is benefited;* *C. Agr. 1, 4.*

3. This Ablative is used with **fidō, cōnfidō, nitor, innitor, assuēscō, assuēficiō**, etc:

Nēmō fortunae stabilitate cōnfidit, no one trusts the stability of fortune; *cf. C. Tusc. 5, 14, 40. Salūs vērītate nititur, safety rests upon truth. Nullō officiō assuēfacti, trained to (familiar with) no duty;* *Caes. 4, 1. Sēsē castris tenēbant, they kept themselves in camp;* *Caes. 3, 24. Mariū tēctō recēpērunt, they received Marius into their houses.*

4. The following Ablatives deserve notice:

Quadrāgintā hostilis sacrificāre, to make a sacrifice with forty victims; *L. 41, 17. Facere vitulā, to make a sacrifice with a calf;* *V. E. 3, 77. Fidi-bus canere, to play upon the lyre;* *C. Tusc. 1, 2, 4. Pilā lūdere, to play ball (with the ball);* *H. S. 1, 5, 49.*

ABLATIVE OF MEANS — SPECIAL USES

477. Rule. — I. The Ablative of Means is used with **utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor**, and their compounds:

Plūrimis rēbus fruimur atque ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things; *C. N. D. 2, 60, 152. Fungitur officiō senātoris, he is discharging the duty of a senator. Magnā erat praeda potitus, he had obtained great booty. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived (fed) on milk and flesh;* *N. 89, 7.*

1. These deponent verbs are all survivals of the middle voice, and accordingly contain the direct object in themselves, while the Ablative is the means by which the action is effected; thus **utor, I use, I serve myself by means of; fruor, I enjoy, I delight myself with**, etc. Originally transitive, they are occasionally so used in classical authors:

Utēris operam meam, you shall have (use) my assistance; *Pl. Poen. 1088.*

2. **Ūtor** admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Facili mē ūtētur patre, he will find me an indulgent father; *T. Heaut. 217.*

3. **Potior** admits the Genitive:

Partis Siciliae potitus est, he became master of a part of Sicily; *N. 10, 5.*

II. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling and with adjectives of Fullness: **abundō, redundō, affluō**, etc.; **compleō, expleō, impleō, onerō**, etc.; **onustus, refertus, plēnus**, etc.:

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Villa abundat lacte, cāseō, melle, the villa abounds in milk, cheese, honey; C. Sen. 16, 56. Deus bonis explēvit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings; C. Univ. 3, 5. Nāvēs onerant aurō, they load the ships with gold. Nāvēs frūmentō onustae, ships loaded with grain. Urbs referta cōpiis, a city filled with supplies; C. Att. 7, 13.

1. **Compleō** and **impleō** take either the Accusative and Genitive or the Accusative and Ablative:

Mē complēvit formīdinis, he filled me with fear; Pl. Men. 901. Italiam vestris coloniis complēre voluistis, you wished to fill Italy with your colonists.

2. Most adjectives of Fullness occasionally admit the Genitive. With **plēnus** this is the regular construction in the best prose. In **Cicero refertus** takes the Genitive when used of persons, but the Ablative when used of things:

Erat Italia plēna Graecarum artium, Italy was full of Grecian arts; C. Arch. 3, 5. Domus referta vasis Corinthiis, a house full of Corinthian vases; C. Rosc. A. 46, 133. Mare refertum praedonum, a sea full of pirates; C. Rab. P. 3, 20.

III. The Ablative of Means is used with **opus** and **ūsus**, often in connection with the Dative of the person:

Militi nummis ducentis ūsus est, the soldier needs two hundred sesterces; Pl. Bac. 706. Auctoritate tuā nobis opus est, we need your influence. Cōsultō opus est, there is need of deliberation; S. C. 1.

NOTE. — With **opus est**, rarely with **ūsus est**, the thing needed may be denoted by the Nominative, or an Infinitive; rarely by the Genitive,² a supine, or an **ut**-clause:³

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader; C. Fam. 2, 6, 4. Opus est tē valēre, it is necessary that you be well; C. Fam. 16, 14. Temporis opus est, there is need of time; cf. L. 22, 51. Ita dictū opus est, it is necessary to say so; T. Heaut. 941. Mihi opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe; Pl. Truc. 328.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE AND VALUE

478. Rule. — Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives:

Aurō viri vitam vēdidit, for gold she sold her husband's life; C. Inv. 1, 50, 94. Fānum pecūniā grandī vēditum est, the temple was sold for much

¹ Lit. *there is to the soldier a use for or with two hundred sesterces.*

² First in Livy.

³ In Plautus and late prose.

money. Multō sanguine Poenī victōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to them at) much blood; L. 23, 30. Lis aestimātur centum talentis, the fine is fixed at a hundred talents. Vēnālis decem milibus, for sale at ten thousand (sesterces); C. Cael. 7, 17.

Prāta māgnō aestimant, they value meadows highly. Quantī est aestimanda virtūs, how highly should virtue be valued? Quem plūrimī fecerat, whom he had esteemed most highly; N. 18, 2. Vēnīre quam plūrimō, to be sold at as high a price as possible. Emit, he purchased? Quanti, for how much? Vigintī minīs, for twenty minae; T. Eun. 984.

1. The Ablative of Price is used with verbs of Buying, Selling, Hiring, Letting; of Costing; of Being Cheap or Dear, as **emō**, **vēndō**, **vēnēō**; **condūcō**, **locō**; **stō**, **cōnstō**, **liceor**, and with a few adjectives of kindred meaning, as **vēnālis**, *for sale*; **cārus**, *dear*; **vīlis**, *cheap*; see examples. With these words only five Genitives of Price are used: **tantī**, **tantī-dem**, **quantī**, **plūris**, and **minōris**.

2. With verbs of Valuing the following Genitives are used, **parvī**, **māgnī**, **permāgnī**, **tantī**, **tantī-dem**, **quantī**, **plūris**, **plūrimī**, **minōris**, **minimī**, etc.

3. Instead of the Ablative of Price, adverbs are sometimes used, as **bene emere**, *to buy well* (i.e. at a low price); **bene vēndere**, *to sell well* (i.e. at a high price).

4. **Exchanging**. — With verbs of Exchanging — **mūtō**, **commūtō**, etc. — the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but, in poetry and late prose, the thing given is often treated as the price, as with verbs of buying:

Victor pāce bellum mūtāvit, the victor exchanged war for peace; S. C. 58, 15. Cūr valles permūtēm Sabīnā divitiās, why should I exchange the Sabine vale for riches? H. 3, 1, 47.

5. But with verbs of Exchanging, the thing given is sometimes designated by the Ablative with **cum** or **prō**:

Cum patriae cāritāte glōriam commūtāre, to exchange love of country for glory; cf. C. Sest. 16, 37.

6. For a fuller treatment of the Genitive of Price, see 448.

ABLATIVE OF DIFFERENCE

479. Rule. — The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used

1. With Comparatives and Superlatives:

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day); C. Ver. 2, 52, 129. Sōl multīs partibus māior est quam

terra, the sun is very much (by many parts) larger than the earth; cf. C. N. D. 2, 86, 92. Tantō longior ānfractus, a circuitous route so much longer. Cōnspectus multō iūcundissimus, a sight by far the most pleasing.

2. With verbs and other words implying Comparison :

Multō mihi praestat, it is much better for me; C. Sest. 69, 146. Virtutem omnibus rēbus multō antepōnunt, they much prefer excellence to everything else; cf. C. Fin. 4, 18, 51.

3. To denote Intervals of Time or Space :

Homērus annis multis fuit ante Rōmulum, Homer lived (was) many years before (before by many years) Romulus. C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucis diēbus post mortem Africāni, a few days after the death of Africanus; C. Am. 1. Milibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castris cōnsēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp; C. Caes. 1, 18.

ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION

480. Rule. — A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application :

Agēsilaus nōmine, nōn potestāte, fuit rēx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power; N. 21, 1. Fuit claudus alterō pede, he was lame in one foot. Hi linguā, institūtis, lēgibus inter sē differunt, those differ from each other in language, institutions, and laws; C. Caes. 1, 1.

1. **Nātū** and Supines in **ū** are often used as Ablatives of Specification :

Minimus nātū omnium, the youngest of all. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell (in the telling).

2. The Ablative of Specification is often used with verbs of Measuring and Judging, to show in reference to what the statement is true :

Māgnōs hominēs virtūte mētimur, nōn fortunā, we measure great men by (in reference to) their merit, not their success; N. 18, 1. Benevolentiam nōn ardōre amoris, sed cōstantiā iūdicēmus, let us judge of good will, not by the glow of affection, but by its constancy.

3. The Ablative of Specification, in a strict sense, shows in what respect or particular anything is true, and, in a somewhat freer sense, in regard to what, in reference to what, it is true.

4. For the Accusative of Specification, see 416.

481. To the Ablative of Specification may be referred the Ablative with **dignus** and **indignus** :

Digni sunt amicitia, they are worthy of friendship; C. Am. 21, 79. Tē honōre indignissimum iūdicat, he judges you most unworthy of honor; C. Vat. 16, 89.

1. In rare instances, mostly poetical, **dignus** and **indignus** occur with the Genitive:

Dignissimum tuae virtūtis, most worthy of your high character; cf. C. Att. 8, 15, A. *Māgnōrum haud umquam indignus avōrum, never unworthy of my great sires*; V. 12, 649.

2. **Dignor**, as a passive verb meaning *to be deemed worthy*, takes the Ablative; but as a deponent verb meaning *to deem worthy*, used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honōre dignantur, they are deemed worthy of honor; C. Inv. 2, 53, 161. *Haud tāll mē dignor honōre, not of such honor do I deem myself worthy*; V. 1, 335.

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

482. The Locative and the Locative Ablative in a measure supplement each other. They include

1. Ablative of Place, generally with the preposition **in**; see **483**.
2. Locative in Names of Towns; see **483**.
3. Ablative of Time; see **486**.
4. Ablative Absolute; see **489**.

ABLATIVE OF PLACE

483. Rule. — The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition **in**, but in names of Towns by the Locative:

Caesar duās legiōnēs in Gallia cōscripsit, Caesar enrolled two legions in Gaul. *In oppidō obsidēbantur, they were besieged in the town.* *Exercitum in hibernis collocāvit, he placed the army in winter quarters.*

Rōmae supplicatio redditur, at Rome a thanksgiving is appointed; Caes. 7, 90. *Alesiae obsidēbantur, they were besieged at Alesia.* *Dionysius Corinthi puerōs docēbat, Dionysius taught boys at Corinth.* *Carthāgine rēgēs creābantur, at Carthage kings were elected*; N. 23, 7. *Aristidēs Athēnis fuit, Aristides was at Athens.*

1. In the names of Towns, instead of the Locative, the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition, when qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun, and sometimes when not thus modified:

In Illyriō, in ipsā Alexandrēā, in Illyria, in Alexandria itself; C. Att. 11, 16. *Longā dominārī Albā, to hold sway at Alba Longa*; V. 6, 766. *In monte Albānō Lāviniōque,¹ on the Alban mount and at Lavinium*; L. 5, 52, 8.

¹ Here **Lāviniō** is probably assimilated to the case of **monte Albānō**.

2. When **oppidō** or **urbe** accompanies the name of the town in expressions of Place, if without a modifier, it takes the preposition **in** and is followed by the Ablative of the name; but if with a modifier, it follows the name, and is used either with or without the preposition.

In oppidō Citiō est mortuus, *he died in the town Citium*; N. 5, 8. *Albae cōstitērunt, in urbe opportūnā, they halted at Alba, a convenient city*; C. Ph. 4, 2, 6. *Corinthī, Achāiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia*; Tac. H. 2, 1.

484. Like Names of Towns are used

1. Many Names of Islands and Peninsulas:

Cōnōn Cypri vixit, *Conon lived in Cyprus*; N. 12, 8. *Miltiadēs domum Chersonēsī habuit, Miltiades had a house in the Chersonesus.*

2. The Locatives **domī**, **rūrī**, **humī**, **militiae**, **belī**, and a few others found in poets and late writers:

Et domi et militiae cōsiliū praestābant, *they showed their wisdom at home and abroad*; C. Or. 3, 33, 134. *Rūrī egere vitam cōstituit, he decided to spend his life in the country.* *Rōmae et domī tuae vivere, to live at Rome and in your house.* *Dēprehēsus domi C. Caesaris, caught in the house of Caesar*; cf. C. Att. 1, 12. *Tamquam aliēnae domi, as if in the house of another.* *Truncum reliquit harēnae, he left the body in the sand*; V. 12, 3-2.

NOTE 1. — **Domī** may be modified by a possessive, a Genitive, or **aliēnus**, as in the examples; when any other modifier is required, the Ablative with **in** is generally used:

In privātā domō fūrtum, *a theft in a private house*; C. C. 3, 7, 17.

NOTE 2. — Instead of **domī** with its modifier, **apud** with an Accusative of the person may be used: **apud mē** = domi meae, *at my house*:

Apud tē fuit, *he was at your house.* *Fuisti apud Laecam, you were at the house of Laeca*; C. C. 1, 4.

485. The Locative Ablative is often used without a preposition:

1. When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Meō iūdicio stāre mālō, *I prefer to abide by my own judgment*; C. Att. 12, 21. *Prōmissis manēre (poetical), to abide by promises*; V. 2, 160. *Nova pectore versat cōsilia, she devises (turns over) new plans in her breast.* *Pendēmus animis, we are perplexed in mind*; C. Tusc. 1, 40, 96.

2. The Locative Ablative qualified by **tōtus**, and the Ablatives **terrā** and **marī**, especially in **terrā marique**, are regularly used without the preposition; **locō** and **locis** are generally so used; occasionally other Ablatives, especially when qualified by adjectives:

Mānat totā urbe rŭmor, the report spreads through the whole city; L. 2, 49, 1. *Nātiōnibus terrā marique imperāre, to rule nations on land and sea*; C. Man. 19, 54. *Eōdem locō nāti sunt, they were born in the same situation*; C. Rosc. A.* 51, 149. *Reliquis oppidī partibus, in the remaining parts of the town.*

3. In poetry and late prose, the Locative Ablative is freely used without the preposition:

Lūcis habitāmus opācis, we dwell in shady groves; V. 6, 673. *Populus laetum theātris ter crepuit sonum, the people made the joyful applause thrice resound in the theater*; II. 2, 17, 25.

4. By a difference of idiom, the Latin sometimes uses the Ablative with *ā*, *ab*, *ē*, or *ex*, where the English would lead us to expect the Locative Ablative, but in such cases the Latin calls attention to the place from which the action proceeds: *ā* or *ab dextrā*, *on the right* (from the right):

Hās ab utrōque latere prōtegēbat, these he protected on both sides; Caes. C. 1, 25. *Continentur unā ex parte Rhēnō, alterā ex parte, monte Iūrā, they are shut in by the Rhine on one side, by mount Jura on another*; Caes. 1, 2. *Ex equis pugnāre visi sunt, they were seen to fight on horseback*; C. N. D. 2, 2, 6.

5. Instead of the Locative Ablative, especially in plural names of tribes and peoples, the Accusative with *apud* or *inter* may be used:

Civitās magnā inter Belgās auctoritāte, a state of great influence among the Belgae; Caes. 2, 15.

NOTE. — The Accusative with *apud*, meaning *in the works of*, is the usual form in citing authors:

Ille apud Terentium, that well-known character in the works of Terence; C. Flt. 5, 10, 28.

ABLATIVE OF TIME

486. Rule. — The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition:

Solis occāsū suās cōpiās Ariovistus redūxit, at sunset Ariovistus led back his forces; Caes. 1, 50. *Posterō diē lūce primā movet castra, on the following day at dawn he moves his camp.* *Bellum ineunte vĕre suscepit, he entered upon the war in the beginning of spring.*

1. The Ablative of Time is found in the names of Games, Festivals, Offices, and in almost any words that may be used to denote time:

Liberālibus literās accēpi tuās, I received your letter on the festival of Liber; C. Fam. 12, 25, 1. *Cōsulātū dēvēnimus in medium certāmen, in my consulship I became involved in the midst of the strife*; C. Or. 1, 1.

487. The Time Within Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative with or without *in*, sometimes with *dē* :

Ter in annō audire nūntiūm, to hear the tidings three times in the course of the year ; C. Rosc. A. 46, 132. In diēbus proximis decem, within the next ten days. Nēmō his annis viginti rei publicae fuit hostis, there has been no enemy of the republic within these twenty years. Dē tertā vigiliā castra movet, in the third watch he moves his camp ; cf. Caes. C. 1, 69.

1. The Ablative with *in* is often used to call attention to the Circumstances of the Time or the Condition of Affairs :

In periculōsissimō rei publicae tempore, in a most perilous condition of the republic. In tāli tempore, at such a time (i.e. under such circumstances).

2. The Accusative with *inter* or *intrā*, like the Ablative with *in*, may be used of the Time Within Which ; the Accusative with *ad* or *in*, of an Appointed Time, and with *ad* or *sub*, of an Approaching Time :

Haec inter cēnam dictāvi, I dictated this during the dinner. Filium intrā paucōs diēs amisit, within a few days he lost his son. Omnia ad diem facta sunt, all things were done on the appointed day ; Caes. 2, 5. Ad cēnam hominem invitāvit in posterum diem, he invited the man to dinner for the next day. Sub vesp̄rum exire, to go out towards evening.

488. The Interval between two events may be variously expressed :

1. By the Accusative or Ablative with *ante* or *post* :

Classis post diēs paucōs vēnit, after a few days the fleet arrived. Paucōs ante diēs, a few days before. Homērus annis multis fuit ante Rōmulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus ; C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucis ante diēbus nōluit, he declined a few days before. Paucis post annis, a few years after.

2. By the Accusative or Ablative with *ante quam*, *post quam*, or *post*, generally with an ordinal numeral :

Post diem tertium quam dixerat, three days after he had spoken ; C. Mil. 16, 44. Annō ipsō ante quam nātus est Ennius, in the very year before Ennius was born. Nōnō annō post quam in Hispāniam vēnerat, in the ninth year after he had come into Spain ; N. 22, 4, 2.

3. By the Ablative of a relative and its antecedent :

Mors Rōscii quadriduō quō is occisus est nūntiātur, the death of Roscius is announced four days after he was killed ; C. Rosc. A. 86, 104.

NOTE 1. — *Prīdiē quam* means *on the day before*, and *postrīdiē quam*, *on the day after or a day later* :

Postrīdiē vēnit, quam exspectāram, he came a day later than I had expected ; C. Fam. 16, 14.

NOTE 2. — The question *how long ago?* may be answered by the Accusative with **abhinc** :

Abhinc annōs trecentōs fuit, he lived three hundred years ago ; C. Div. 2, 57, 118.

NOTE 3. — In rare instances the Ablative with **abhinc** is used like the Ablative with **ante** :

Abhinc diēbus trigintā, thirty days before ; C. Ver. 2, 52, 185.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE¹

489. Rule. — A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance :

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning).² Cōsulēs, rēgibus exāctis, creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings,³ consuls were elected ; L. 4, 4, 2 *Caesar equitatū praemissō subsequēbatur, Caesar having sent forward his cavalry followed. Hōc dicit, mē audiente, he says this in my hearing. Lēgātōs discēdere, nisi mūnītis castris, vetuerat, he had forbidden his lieutenants to depart, unless the camp was fortified* ; Cæs. 2, 20 *Caclō serēnō obscurāta lūx est, while the sky was clear, the sun (the light) was obscured* ; L. 37, 4, 4. *L. Pisōne, Aulō Gabiniō cōsulibus, in the consulship of L. Piso and Aulus Gabinius.*

1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, generally expresses the Time, Cause, or some Attendant Circumstance of the action. It is generally best rendered by a noun with a preposition — *in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.* ; by an active participle with its object ; or by a clause with *when, while, because, if, though, etc.* ; see examples above.

2. A conjunction, as **nisi, tamquam, etc.**, sometimes accompanies the Ablative, as in the fifth example.

3. The Ablative in this construction generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs, but exceptions occur :

Obsidibus imperātis, hōs Aeduis trādit, having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui ; Cæs. 6, 4.

¹ This Ablative is called Absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. In classical Latin it expresses both Instrumental and Locative relations.

² Or, *while Servius was reigning, or, while Servius was king.*

³ Or, *after the kings were banished.*

⁴ The construction by which a noun and an adjective, or two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding construction in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb, *to be*, is used.

4. In the Ablative Absolute, Perfect Participles of deponent verbs are generally found only in the poets and late writers. With an object they are first found in Sallust:

Sullā omnia pollicitō, as Sulla promised everything; S. 108, 7.

5. Two participles, or a participle and a predicate noun or adjective, are occasionally combined with a noun in the Ablative Absolute:

Agro captō ex hostibus divisō, when the land taken from the enemy had been divided; L. 1, 15. Hasdrubale imperatōre successō, when Hasdrubal succeeded as commander; N. 26, 2.

6. An Infinitive or Clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Alexander, auditō Dārēm mōvisse, pergit, Alexander having heard that Darius had withdrawn, advances; Curt. 5, 18. Multi, incertō quid vitārent, interiērunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid, perished; L. 18, 86.

7. A Participle or an Adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certātō,¹ pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle; Tac. An. 11, 10.

8. *Quisque* or *ipse* in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:

Causā ipse pro se dictā damnātur,² having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned; L. 1, 41, 10. Exercitus, multis sibi quisque imperium petantibus, dilābitur,² while many seek the command, each for himself, the army goes to pieces; S. 18, 3.

9. *Absente nobis*, in my absence, in which *nobis* is used for *me*, is an instance of Synesis:

Quid absente nobis turbātumst (= turbātum est), what is the disturbance in my absence? T. Eun. 649.

ABLATIVE WITH PREPOSITIONS

490. Rule. — The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Mātūrat ab urbe proficisci, he hastens to set out from the city. Ab his amātur, by these he is loved. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze.

¹ Here the participle is used impersonally, it having been much contested.

² In the first example *ipse* may be explained as belonging to the subject of *damnātur*, but in the second *quisque* has no grammatical connection with any other word in the sentence. A plausible view of the construction is that *sibi quisque*, which in certain connections has become almost a stereotyped formula, has been brought over unchanged into the Ablative Absolute from the clause which it represents.

Cōram frequentissimō conventū, in the presence of the crowded assembly. Dulce et decōrum est prō patriā mori, it is sweet and seemly to die for one's country. Taurō tenus rēgnāre iussus est, he was bidden to limit his realm by Mount Taurus (to reign as far as Taurus); cf. C. Delot. 13, 36.

1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: **ab urbe**, from the city; **ex urbe**, out of the city; **in urbe**, in the city; **cum urbe**, with the city; **prō urbe**, before the city or in behalf of the city.

2. The following ten prepositions are used with the Ablative only:

<i>ā</i> , ab, abs, from, by	<i>ē</i> , ex, out of, from
<i>absque</i> , without	<i>prae</i> , before, in comparison with
<i>cōram</i> , in the presence of	<i>prō</i> , before, for
<i>cum</i> , with	<i>sine</i> , without
<i>dē</i> , down from, from	<i>tenus</i> , as far as

NOTE 1. — *Ā* and *ē* are used only before consonants, **ab** and **ex** before either vowels or consonants. **Abs** is antiquated, except before *tē*.

NOTE 2. — **Cum**, when used with a Personal or a Relative Pronoun, is generally appended to it.

NOTE 3. — **Tenus** follows its case. Being in origin the Accusative of a noun, it often takes the Genitive; see 446, 5.

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

<i>in</i> , into, in	<i>subter</i> , beneath, under, towards
<i>sub</i> , under, towards	<i>super</i> , above, about, beyond

In and **sub** with the Accusative after verbs of motion; with the Ablative after verbs of rest. **Subter** and **super** generally with the Accusative; **subter** with the Ablative rare and mostly poetical; **super** with the Ablative meaning concerning, of, on, used of a subject of discourse:

Hannibal exercitum in Italiam dūxit, Hannibal led an army into Italy. Quam diū in Italia fuit, as long as he was in Italy. Militēs sub montem succedunt, the soldiers approach towards the mountain. Sub pellibus hiemāre, to winter in camp (under skins). Subter mūrū hostiūm āvehitur, he is borne under the wall of the enemy. Subter densā testūdine, under a compact testudo. Aquila super carpentum volitāns, an eagle flying above the carriage. Hāc super rē scribam, I shall write on this subject.

4. A few words, generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions, and are used with the Ablative, as **intus**, **palam**, **procul**, **simul** (poetic), and rarely **clam**:

Tālī intus templō, within such a temple; V. 7, 192. Palam populō, in the presence of the people; L. 6, 14. Procul dubiō, without doubt or far from doubtful; L. 39, 40. Simul his, with these; H. S. 1, 10, 66. Clam vōbīs, without your knowledge; Caes. C. 2, 82.

Summary of Constructions of Place and Space

491. I. The Names of Places are generally put

1. In the Accusative with **ad** or **in** to denote the Place to or into Which:

Exercitum in Italiam dūxit, he led an army into Italy.

2. In the Ablative with **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** to denote the Place from Which:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.

3. In the Locative Ablative with **in** to denote the Place at or in Which:

Hannibal in Italiā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. In oppidō obsidēbantur, they were besieged in the town.

II. The Names of Towns and words which follow their analogy are put

1. In the Accusative to denote the Place to Which:

Lēgātī Athēnās missī sunt, ambassadors were sent to Athens. Ego rūs ibō, I shall go into the country.

2. In the Ablative to denote the Place from Which:

Dēmārātus fūgit Corinthō, Demaratus fled from Corinth. Platōnem Athēnis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Cum domō profūgisset, when he had fled from home.

3. In the Locative to denote the Place at or in Which:

Rōmae et demi tuae vivere, to live at Rome and in your house. Cypri vixit, he lived in Cyprus.

III. The common constructions of Space are as follows:

1. Extent of Space is denoted by the Accusative:

Agger altus pedēs octōgintā, a mound eighty feet high.

2. Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Sōl multis partibus maior est quam terra, the sun is very much larger than the earth.

3. Distance, when regarded as Extent of Space, is denoted by the Accusative, but when regarded as Measure of Difference, by the Ablative:

Septingenta milia passuum ambulāre, to walk seven hundred miles. Milibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castris cōnsēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp.

USE OF ADJECTIVES.

492. Adjectives in Latin correspond in their general use to adjectives in English.

1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun with one or more other modifiers: **duae legiōēs novae**,¹ *two new legions*; **nāvēs longae veterēs**, *old war vessels*; **columna aurea solida**, *a column of solid gold*; **onerāria nāvis māxima**, *a very large ship of burden*.

NOTE. — In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined as in these examples; but if the first adjective is **multī**, the connective is usually inserted, though it is sometimes omitted, especially when one of the adjectives follows the noun: **multae bonaeque**² **artēs**, *many good arts*; **multa et praeclāra**² **facinora**, *many illustrious deeds*; **multae liberae civitatēs**, *many free states, many republics*; **multa bella gravia**, *many severe wars*.

493. Prolepsis, or Anticipation. — An adjective or a participle is sometimes applied to a noun, especially in poetry, to denote the result of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersās³ **obruē** **puppēs**, *overwhelm and sink the ships* (overwhelm the sunken ships); V. 1, 69. **Scūta latentia condunt**, *they conceal their* (hidden) *shields*; V. 3, 27.

494. Adjectives and Participles are often used Substantively in the plural. Thus:

1. Masculine Adjectives and Participles are used of persons; Neuter Adjectives, chiefly in the Nominative and Accusative, are used of things: **fortēs**, **dīvitēs**, **pauperēs**, *the brave, the rich, the poor*; **multī**, **paucī**, **omnēs**, *many, few, all*; **nostrī**, **vestrī**, **sui**, *our friends, your friends, their friends*; **spectantēs**, **audientēs**, **discēntēs**, *spectators, hearers, learners*; **bona**, **ūtīlia**, **futūra**, *good things, useful things, future events*; **mea**, **nostra**, **omnia**, *my things, our things, all things*.

495. Adjectives and Participles are occasionally used Substantively in the singular. Thus:

¹ Here **duae** modifies not simply **legiōēs**, but **legiōēs novae**; so **veterēs** qualifies **nāvēs longae**, *war vessels*.

² Lit. *many and good*; *many and illustrious*.

³ Observe that **submersās** gives the result of the action denoted by **obruē**, and is not applicable to **puppēs** until that action is performed; **latentia** likewise gives the result of **condunt**.

1. In the masculine in a collective sense, especially as a predicate Genitive after *est*, etc., and when accompanied by a pronoun: **Rōmānus** = **Rōmānī**, *the Roman, the Romans*; **bonus**, *the good man, the good*; **sapientis est**, *it is the mark of a wise man or of wise men = it is wise*; **hic doctus**, **doctus quidam**, *this learned man, a certain learned man*; **hic Rōmānus**, **Rōmānus quidam**, *this Roman, a certain Roman*.

2. In the neuter in the Nominative and Accusative, in the Partitive Genitive, and in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: **bonum**, *a good thing, a blessing*; **malum**, *an evil thing, an evil*; **nihil bonī**, *nothing (of the) good*; **nihil hūmānī**, *nothing human*; **in futūrum**, *for the future*; **in praesentī**, *at present*.

3. Conversely a few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in *tor* and *trīx*: **victor exercitus**, **victoricēs Athēnae**, *a victorious army, victorious Athens*; **homō gladiātor**, **servus homō**, **gladiator**, *a servant*; **populus lātē rēx**, *a people ruling far and wide*.

4. For the use of adjectives with the force of qualifying Genitives, see 437.

496. Equivalent to a Clause. — Adjectives, like nouns in predicate apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Alterum vivum amāvi, alterum nōn odi mortuum, *the one I loved while he was alive, the other I do not hate now that he is dead*; C. Gr. 3, 18. *Ab homine nunquam sobriō*, *from a man who is never sober*; C. Ph. 2, 82.

497. Adjectives and Adverbs. — Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom requires adverbs or adverbial expressions:

Sōcratēs venēnum laetus hausit, *Socrates cheerfully drank the poison*; Sen. Prov. 3. *Quod invitus faciō*, *which I do unwillingly*; C. Rose. A. 42, 123. *Castris sē pavidus tenēbat*, *he timidly kept himself in camp*; L. 3, 26. *In amōre est tōtus*, *he is wholly in love*. *Erat ille Rōmae frequēns*, *he was frequently at Rome*. *Senātus frequēns convenit*, *the senate assembles in large numbers*; C. Fam. 10, 12, 3.

1. The adjectives chiefly thus used are those expressive of Joy, Knowledge, and their opposites. — **laetus**, **libēns**, **invitus**, **trīstis**, **sciēns**, **inasciēns**, **prūdēns**, **imprūdēns**, etc.; also **nūllus**, **sōlus**, **tōtus**, **ūnus**, **propior**, **proximus**, etc.

2. A few adjectives of Time and Place are sometimes used in the same way, though chiefly in the poets:

Vespertinus pete tēctum, *at evening seek your abode*; H. E. 1, 6, 20. *Domesticus otior*, *I idle about the house*; H. S. 1, 6, 127.

3. Note the following special uses of such adjectives as **prior**, **prīmus**, **prīnceps**, **postrēmus**, **ultimus**, etc.:

Est primus rogātus sententiam, *he was the first to be asked his opinion*; L. 37, 14. Princeps in proelium ibat, *he was the first to go into battle*; L. 21, 4.

4. Certain adjectives, as **primus**, **medius**, **ultimus**, **summus**, etc., may designate a part of an object; as **prima nox**, *the first part of the night*; **summus mōns**, *the top of the mountain*.

5. In rare instances, adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Rēctissimē sunt omnia, *all things are perfectly right*; C. Fam. 9, 9. Nunc hominum mōrēs, *the character of the men of the present day*; Pl. Pers. 385.

6. Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office:

Rēgulus cōsul iterum, *Regulus when consul for the second time*; cf. C. Off. 3, 26, 99.

498. Comparatives and Superlatives.—Latin Comparatives and Superlatives are generally best rendered by the corresponding English forms, but comparatives may sometimes be rendered by *somewhat*, *unusually*, *too*, i.e. more than usual, or more than is proper, while superlatives are sometimes best rendered by *very*:

Ego miserior sum quam tū, *I am more unhappy than you*. Senectūs est loquāciōr, *old age is somewhat loquacious*. Grātissimae mihi tuae litterae fuērunt, *your letter was very acceptable to me*. Quam māximus numerus, *the largest possible number*. Unus omnium doctissimus, *without exception, the most learned of all*. Quantam māximam vāstitātem potest ostendit, *he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (as great as the greatest he can)*; L. 22, 3.

1. Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: **clārissimus**, **nōbilissimus**, and **summus**—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; **fortissimus**, **honestissimus**, **illūstrissimus**, and **splendidi-ssimus**—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order:

Pompēius, vir fortissimus et clārissimus, *Pompey, a man most brave and illustrious*; C. I. Ver. 15, 44. Equitēs Rōmānī, honestissimī virī, *the Roman knights, most honorable men*; C. C. I, 8, 21.

499. Comparatives after Quam.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used may be connected by **magis quam**, the usual method in Cicero, or both may be put in the comparative:

Pracelārū magis est quam difficile, *it is more admirable than difficult, or admirable rather than difficult*; C. Q. Fr. 1, 1, 11. Ditiōrēs quam fortiōrēs, *more wealthy than brave*; L. 39, 1.

1. In a similar manner, two Adverbs may be connected by **magis quam**, or both may be put in the comparative:

Magis audacter quam paratē, *with more courage than preparation*; C. Brut. 68, 241. **Bellum fortius quam feliciter gerere**, *to wage war with more valor than success*.

2. The form with **magis**, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered *rather than*:

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, *an art extensive rather than difficult*.

3. In the later Latin, the positive sometimes follows **quam**, even when the regular comparative precedes, and sometimes two positives are used:

Vehementius quam cautē appetere, *to seek more eagerly than cautiously*; cf. Tac. Agr. 4. **Clari quam vetusti**, *illustrious rather than ancient*.

4. For the use of comparatives before **quam pro**, see 471, 7.

USE OF PRONOUNS

500. Personal Pronouns. — The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast:

Naturam si sequemur, *numquam aberrabimus*, *if we follow nature, we shall never go astray*. **Ego reges eieci**, **vos tyrannos introducit**, *I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants*; Ad Hor. 4, 53.

1. With **quidem**, the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with **equidem**:

Facis amicē tū quidem, *you act indeed in a friendly manner*. **Nō dubitābam equidem**, *I did not doubt indeed*.

2. A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using **nōs** for **ego**, **noster** for **meus**, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vidēs nōs multa cōnārī, *you see that I attempt many things*; C. Orator, 30, 105. **Et nostra lēctitās**, *and you often read my writings*; C. Orator, 30, 105. **Librum ad tē mīsimus**, *I have sent the book to you*; C. Sen. 1, 3.

3. In Plautus and in Horace, **noster**, *our friend*, occurs in the sense of **ego**:

Tū mē aliēnābis numquam quān noster sēm, *you shall never make me to be any other than myself*; Pl. Amph. 399. **Subiectior in diem invidiāe noster**, *I am daily more exposed to unpopularity*; H. S. 2, 6.

4. **Mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostrī**, and **vestrī** are generally used as Objective Genitives; **nostrum** and **vestrum**, as Partitive Genitives — though with

Omnium, and in certain special expressions, **nostrum** and **vestrum** are used as Possessive Genitives:

Habētis ducem inemorem vestri, oblitum sui, *you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself*; C. C. 4, 9. Ūnī cuique vestrum, *to every one of you*; C. Ph. 5, 1. Communis parēns omnium nostrum, *the common mother of us all*; C. C. 1, 7. Quantus cōsensus vestrum, *how great unanimity on your part (of you)*; C. Ph. 3, 1.

* 5. A Personal Pronoun with **ab**, **ad**, or **apud** may designate the Residence or Abode of a person:

Quisnam ā nobīs ēgreditur forās, *who is coming out of our house?* T. Heaut. 561. Venī ad mē, *I came to my house*; C. Att. 16, 10. Rūri apud sē est, *he is at his residence in the country*; cf. C. Or. 1, 49, 214.

501. Possessives, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed if they can be supplied from the context:

In eō studiō aetātem cōsūmpsī, *I have spent my life in this pursuit*. Sic oculōs, sic ille manūs ferebat, *thus he moved his eyes, thus his hands*. Mea domus tibi patet, mihi clausa est, *my house is open to you, closed to me*; C. Rosc. A. 50, 145.

1. Possessives sometimes mean *appropriate, proper, favorable, propitious*, as **aliēnus** sometimes means *unsuitable, unfavorable*:

Ego annō meō cōsul factus sum, *I was made consul in my own proper year* (i.e. on reaching the legal age); cf. C. Brut. 94, 323. Ferunt sua flāmina classem, *favoring winds bear the fleet*; V. 5, 832. Aliēnō locō proelium committunt, *they engage in battle in an unfavorable situation*; Caes. 1, 15.

2. Remember that the Possessive is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of personal pronouns, and sometimes, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive; see 440, 2, Note 2:

Tuā sui memoriā dēlectātur, *he is delighted with your recollection of him*; C. Att. 13, 1, 3. Neque odiō id fēcit tuō, *nor did he do it from hatred of you*; T. Ph. 1016.

3. For the possessive in combination with a Genitive, see 446, 3.

502. Reflexive Use of Pronouns. — The Personal and Possessive Pronouns may be used reflexively; **sui** and **suus** are regularly so used:

Mē ipse cōsōlor, *I comfort myself*; C. Am. 3, 10. Ipse sē quisque diligit, *every one loves himself*. Anteposuit suam salūtem meae, *he preferred his own safety to mine*.

1. **Reciprocal Use of Pronouns.** — The reciprocal relation which objects often sustain to each other may be variously expressed, as by **inter nōs**, **inter vōs**, and **inter sē**, *each other, one another, together*; by the reflexive **sui** with **ipsi**; by **alius alium** or **alter alterum**; and by repeating the noun in an oblique case:

Pueri amant inter sē, the boys love one another. Militēs sibi ipsi sunt impedimentō, the soldiers are a hindrance to one another. Alius alium domos suās invitāt, they invite one another to their homes. Homines hominibus utilis esse possunt, men can be useful to men (i.e. to one another).

503. In simple sentences and in principal clauses, **sui** and **suus** generally refer to the subject:

Per sē quisque sibi cārus est, every one is by his own nature (per sē, through or of himself) dear to himself; C. Am. 21, 80. *Caesar cōpiās suās dividit, Caesar divided his forces.*

1. As **sui** and **suus** generally refer to the subject, the demonstratives **is**, **ille**, etc., are generally used to refer to other words in the sentence:

Deum agnōscis ex operibus eius, you recognize God by (from) his works.

2. **Synesis.** — When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, **sui** and **suus** may refer to that agent:

Ā Caesare invitor sibi ut sim lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be lieutenant to him; C. Att. 2, 18

3. With such indefinite and impersonal expressions as the following, **sui** and **suus** refer to some indefinite person conceived as the author of the action:

Dēfōrme est dē sē praedicāre,¹ to boast of one's self is unseemly; C. Off. 1, 38, 137. *Perventum ad suos erat,¹ they had come to their friends*; L. 33, 8.

4. **Suus**, meaning *his own, their own, fitting*, etc., especially with **quisque**, and the plural of **suus**, meaning *his friends, their friends, their possessions*, etc., are used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Iūstitia suum cuique distribuit, Justice gives to every one his due (his own); C. N. D. 3, 15. *Suō cuique iūdicio est utendū, every one must use his own judgment*; C. N. D. 3, 1. *Cōservā tuīs suos, for the sake of your friends, spare their friends*; C. Lig. 11, 33.

504. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the Thought, Wish, or Purpose of the principal clause, as in the Infinitive clause, final

¹ Here observe that the reflexives **sē** and **suos** refer to the indefinite agents of the action expressed by **praedicāre** and **perventum erat**.

clause, indirect questions, and the like, **sui** and **suus** generally refer to the subject of the principal clause; in all other subordinate clauses, they generally refer to the subject of their own clause, and are called Direct Reflexives:

Sentit animus sē vī suā movērī, the soul perceives that it is moved by its own power; C. Tusc. 1, 23, 55. Ubī ōrant ut sibi parcat, the Ubī ask him to spare them. Pervēstīgat quid sui civēs cōgitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Nēmīnem cōgnōvī poētā, quī sibi nōn optimus vidērētur, I have known no poet who did not seem to himself to be the best; C. Tusc. 5, 22, 63.

1. After verbs of Advising, Exhorting, etc., **sui** and **suus** generally refer to the Subordinate Subject, as the person in whose interest the advice is given:

Nerviōs hortātur nē sui liberandī occāsiōnem dīmīttant, he exhorts the Nerviī not to lose the opportunity of freeing themselves; Caes. 5, 88.

2. **Two Reflexives.** — Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the Principal subject, and another referring to the Subordinate subject:

Respondit nēmīnem sēcum sine suā perniciē contendisse, he replied that no one had fought with him without (his) destruction; Caes. 1, 86.

3. When the Reflexive refers to the Subordinate subject, the Demonstrative or Determinative refers to the Principal subject:

Persuādēt Tulingis utī oppidīs suis exūtīs unā cum iīs proficiscantur, they persuaded the Tulingi that, having burned their towns, they should depart with them; Caes. 1, 5, 4.

4. Reflexives are sometimes used with participles, referring to the agent of the action implied in them:

Hunc rēx excēpit diffidentem¹ rēbus suis cōfirmāvit, the king received him and encouraged him when he had lost confidence in his own strength; C. Man. 9, 23.

5. Reflexives are sometimes used idiomatically with a few prepositions, especially with **per**, **propter**, **cum**, **in**:

Valētūdinem ipsam propter sē expetēmus, we shall seek health for itself; C. Fin. 5, 17. Caesar Fabium cum suā² legiōne remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius with (having) his legion; Caes. 5, 53.

¹ Observe that if an equivalent subordinate clause be substituted for the participle **diffidentem**, as in the translation, the reflexive would be entirely in order, and would refer to the subject of its own clause.

² Observe that **cum legiōne suā** is equivalent to **legiōnem suam habentem**, in which the use of the reflexive is the same as that described above under number 4.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

505. Hic, iste, ille, are often called, respectively, demonstratives of the first, second, and third persons, as **hic** designates that which is near the speaker; **iste**, that which is near the person addressed; and **ille**, that which is remote from both:

Iovem, cūstōdem hūius urbis, *Jupiter the guardian of this (our) city.*
Mūtā istam mentem, *change that purpose of yours.* Illōs quōs vidēre nōn possumus neglegis, *you disregard those whom we can not see.*

1. **Hic** designates an object conceived as near, and **ille** as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Nōn antiquō illō mōre, sed hoc nostrō ēruditas, *educated not in the manner of the olden times, but in this our modern way;* C. Brut. 35, 192.

506. Former and Latter. — In reference to two objects previously mentioned,

1. **Hic** generally follows **ille** and refers to the latter object, while **ille** refers to the former:

Acerbōs inimicōs . . . eōs amicōs . . . illi vtrum saepe dicunt, hi numquam, *bitter enemies . . . those friends . . . the former often speak the truth, the latter never;* cf. C. Am. 24, 90.

2. **Hic** refers to the former object when that object is conceived of as near in thought, either because of its importance or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion. It may then stand either before or after **ille**:

Melior est certa pax quam spērāta victōria; haec in tuā, illa in deōrum manū est, *sure peace is better than hoped-for victory; the former is in your own hand, the latter in that of the gods;* L. 30, 30. Senex . . . adulescēns . . . ille vult diū vivere, hic diū vixit, *the aged man . . . the young man . . . the latter wishes to live a long time; the former has lived a long time;* C. Sen. 19, 68.

507. Other Uses of Demonstratives. — **Hic** and **ille** are often used of what belongs to the immediate context:

Haec quae scribō et illa quae antea questus sum, *these things which I am writing and those of which I before complained;* S. 24, 9. His verbis epistolam misit, *he sent a letter in these (the following) words;* N. 2, 9, 1.

1. **Hic et ille, ille aut ille, etc., this and that, that or that, ate sometimes used in the sense one or two, one or another:**

Hoc signum et illud, *this statue and that, one or two statues.*

2. **Hic**, as a demonstrative of the first person, is sometimes, especially in poetry, equivalent to **meus** or **noster**; and **hic homō**, rarely **hic** alone, to **ego**:

Suprā hanc memoriā, *before our time* (this memory); Caes. 6, 19. Hic homōst (homō est) omnium hominum praecipuos, *this man (myself) is the most favored of all men*; Pl. Trin. 1115. Hunc hominem vellēs sī trādere, *if you were willing to introduce me (this man)*; H. S. 1, 9, 47.

3. **Iste**, as a demonstrative of the second person, is often applied to an opponent, or to a defendant in a court of justice; accordingly the idea of Disrespect or Contempt seems at times to be associated with it, though not strictly contained in the pronoun itself:

Quae est ista praetūra, *what sort of praetorship is that of yours?* C. Ver. 2, 18, 46. Animi est ista mollitia, nōn virtūs, *that is an effeminate spirit, not valor*.

4. **Ille** is often used of what is *well known, famous, and* in that sense it is sometimes in apposition with a Personal pronoun:

Māgnus ille Alexander, *that famous Alexander the Great*; C. Arch. 10, 24. Ille ego liber, ille ferōx tacuī, *I, that unrestrained, that fearless one, was silent*.

5. **Ille** is sometimes nearly or quite redundant, especially with **quidem**:

Apollōnius ille quidem suō cōsiliō, sed etiam mē auctōre est profectus, *Apollonius set out of his own free will indeed, but also with my advice*; C. Fam. 13, 16. Qui vēnit, multum ille et terris iactāus et altō, *who came, after having been much tossed about on land and sea*; V. 1, 1.

6. A demonstrative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive or to a preposition with its case: **hic amor** = **amor huius rei**, *the love of this*; **haec cūra** = **cūra dē hōc**, *care concerning this*:

Eā formidine multi mortālēs Rōmānis dediti obsidēs, *from the fear of these things many were delivered as hostages to the Romans*; S. 54, 6.

7. Adverbs derived from demonstratives share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hic plūs malī est, quam illic bonī, *there is more of evil here than of good there*; T. And. 720.

DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

508. **Is** and **idem** refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufūgit; is est in prōvinciā tuā, *Dionysius has fled; he is in your province*. Hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt, *men believe that which they*

desire. Fēcit idem quod fēcerat Coriolānus, *he did the same thing which Coriolanus had done.*

1. The pronoun **is** is often understood before the relative or a Genitive:

Sunt qui cēseant, *there are those who think.* Flēbat uterque, pater dē filiī morte, dē patris filiū, *each wept, the father over the impending death of the son, the son over (that) of the father;* C. Ver. 1. 30

2. **Is** with a conjunction is often used for emphasis, like the English *and that too, and that indeed*:

Ūnam rem explicābō, eamque māximam, *one thing I will explain, and that too a very important one.* Audire Cratippum, idque Athēnis, *to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens*; cf. C. Off. 1, 1.

3. **Idem** is sometimes best rendered *also, at the same time, both, yet*:

Qui fortis est, idem est fidēs, *he who is brave, is also confident.* Cum optimam nātūram dei dicat esse, negat idem, etc., *though he says that the nature of God is most excellent, he yet denies, etc.*; C. N. D. 1, 43, 121. Rēx Anius, rēx idem hominū Phoebique sacerdos, *King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo*; V. 8, 80.

4. **Is . . . quī** means *he . . . who, such . . . as, such . . . that*:

Tū es is quī mē ornāstī, *you are the man (he) who has honored me.* Ea est Rōmāna gēns quae victa quiescere nesciat, *the Roman race is such that it knows not how to rest when vanquished*; L. 9, 3.

5. **Idem . . . quī** means *the same . . . who, the same . . . as*; **Idem . . . ac** or **atque**, **idem . . . et** or **que**, **idem . . . ut**, **idem . . . cum** with the Ablative, *the same . . . as*:

Animus tē ergā idem est ac fuit, *the feeling toward you is the same as it was*; T. Heaut. 265. Eōdem mēcum patre genitus est, *he is the son of the same father as I (with me)*; Tac. A. 15, 2.

509. **Ipse** adds emphasis, generally rendered *self*:

Quod ipse Caesar cōgnōverat, *which Caesar himself had ascertained.* Ipse pater fulmina molitur, *the father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts.* Ipse dixit¹; ipse autem erat Pythagorās, *he himself said it; but he was Pythagoras.*

1. **Ipse** belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject when no special emphasis rests on the object:

¹ Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. **Ipse** is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

Mē ipse cōsolōr, *I myself* (not another) *comfort myself*. Ipse sē quisque diligit, *every one loves himself*. Sē ipse¹ interfēcit, *he himself killed himself*. Sē ipsum¹ interfēcit, *he killed himself* (not another).

2. **Ipse** is sometimes accompanied by **sēcum**, *with himself, alone*, or by **per sē**, *by himself, unaided, in and of himself*, etc.:

Aliud genitor sēcum ipse volūtat, *the father himself is pondering with himself another plan*. Virtūs est per sē ipsa laudābilis, *virtue itself is praiseworthy in and of itself*.

3. **Ipse** is often best rendered by *very*:

Sum profectus ipsō illō diē, *I set out on that very day*.

4. With numerals, **ipse** means *just so many, just*; so also in **nunc ipsum**, *just at this time*; **tum ipsum**, *just at that time*:

Trigintā diēs erant ipsī, *it was just thirty days*. Nunc ipsum sine tē esse nōn possum, *just at this time I cannot be without you*; C. Att. 12, 16.

5. **Ipse**, in the Genitive, with a possessive, means *own, one's own*:

Contentus nostrā ipsōrum amicitia, *satisfied with our own friendship*; C. Fam. 6, 16.

6. **Ipse**, in subordinate clauses, sometimes refers to the principal subject with the force of an emphatic **suī** or **suus**:

Lēgātōs misit qui ipsī vitam peterent, *he sent messengers to beg life for himself*.

7. **Ipse quoque** and **et ipse**² are often best rendered *also, likewise, even he*:

Ipsī quoque vultis, *you also wish it*. Alius Achillēs nātus et ipse deā, *another Achilles likewise (himself also) born of a goddess*; V. 6, 89.

8. For the use of the Nominative **ipse** in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see 489, 8.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

510. The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun, sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Perūtīlēs Xenophōntis libri sunt; quōs legite studiōsē, *the books of Xenophon are very useful; read them attentively*; C. Sen. 17, 59. Quī cum equitatū

¹ In the example with **ipse**, the emphasis is on the subject, *he himself* killed; in the example with **ipsum**, the emphasis is on the object, *killed himself*.

² **Et ipse**, not in Caesar, rare in Cicero, is found in poets, in Livy, and in late writers.

Helvëtiōrum proelium committunt, they engage in battle with the cavalry of the Helvetii; *Caes.* 1, 15, 2. *Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so*; *C. Mur.* 1, 2.

1. **Relatives and Demonstratives** are often correlatives to each other: *hic . . . qui, iste . . . qui*, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words:

Quam quisque nōrit artem,¹ iā hāc sē exerceat, let every one practice (exercise himself in) the art which he understands. Istum² quem quaeris, ego sum, I am that person whom you seek; *F. Cure.* 419.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the relative may be expressed in both, or it may be expressed in the first, and omitted in the second, when the case of the two relatives is the same; or, finally, it may be expressed in the first, and followed by a demonstrative in the second:

Nōs qui sermōnī nōn interfuissemus et quibus Cotta sententiās trādidisset, i.e. who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions; *C. Or.* 3, 4, 16. *Dumnorigi, qui principātum obtinēbat ac plēbi acceptus erat,³ persuādet, he persuades Dumnorigis, who held the chief authority, and who was a favorite of the common people (acceptable to)*; *Caes.* 1, 3, 5. *Quae nec habērēmus nec īterēmur, which we should neither have nor use*; *C. Off.* 2, 3, 12.

3. Several relatives may stand in successive clauses:

In mundō deus inest aliquis, qui regat, qui gubernet, qui cursūs astrōrum cōservet, there is a God in the world, who rules, who governs, who preserves the courses of the stars; *C. N. D.* 1, 20, 52.

4. **Relative with Adjective.**—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially Comparatives, Superlatives, and Numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Vāsa, quae pulcherrima viderat the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (which the most beautiful he had seen). Dē servis suis, quem habuit fidēlissimum, misit, he sent the most faithful of the servants which he had.

5. When both antecedent and relative depend on the same preposition, and the two clauses have the same predicate, the preposition may be omitted before the relative:

Incidit in eandem invidiam, quam⁴ pater suus, he incurred (fell into) the same unpopularity as his father; *N.* 5, 3.

¹ Observe that the relative clause contains the antecedent *artem*.

² *Istum* attracted into the case of the relative, see 399, 5.

³ Observe that, if the relative had been expressed, it would have been in the same case as *qui* in the first clause.

⁴ Observe that *quam* depends on the preposition *in* understood.

6. Relative clauses in Latin, with or without antecedents, are sometimes equivalent to nouns, adjectives, or participles in English, as, **ii qui audiunt**, *those who hear, hearers*; **hominēs qui nunc sunt**, *men of the present generation, our contemporaries*; **ii, quōs suprà dixi**, *the above-mentioned persons*:

Politus iis artibus, quās qui tenent, ēruditi appellantur, *accomplished in those arts whose possessors are called learned*; C. Fin. 1, 7, 26.

7. **Qui dicitur, qui vocātur**, or the corresponding active, **quem dicunt, quem vocant**, etc., are often used in the sense of *so called, the so-called, what they or you call*, etc.:

Vestra, quae dicitur, vita mors est, *your so-called (your which is called) life is death*. **Lēx ista, quam vocās, nōn est lēx**, *that law, as you call it, is not a law*; C. Dom. 19, 50.

8. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with **prō**. **Quae tua prūdentiā est** = *quā es prūdentiā* = *prō tuā prūdentiā* means *such is your prudence, or in accordance with your prudence*:

Spērō, quae tua prūdentiā est, tē valēre, *I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.)*; C. Att. 6, 9, 1.

9. The neuter **quod**, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning of a sentence or clause, especially before **sī, nī, nisi, etsī**, and sometimes before **quā, quoniam, utinam**, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating, it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by *now, in fact, but, and*:

Quod sī forte ceciderint, *but if, perchance, they should fall*; C. Am. 15, 53. **Quod sī ego rescelvissem id prius**, *now, if I had learned this sooner*; T. And. 268.

10. The neuter **quicquid**, of the general relative, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mātrēs et quicquid tēcum invalidum est dēlige, *select the mothers and whatever feeble persons there are with you*; V. 5, 715.

11. The Relative Adverbs **quō, ubī**, and **unde** are sometimes used of persons, instead of relative pronouns with prepositions:

Apud eōs quō sē contulit, *among those to whom he betook himself*. **Is unde tē audisse dicis**, *he from whom you say that you heard it*; C. Or. 2, 70, 285.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

511. The Interrogatives **quis** and **quid** are generally used as substantives, *who? what person? what? what thing?* **Qui** and **quod** are generally used as adjectives, *what? of what kind, sort, or character?*

Quis clārior Themistocle, *who more illustrious than Themistocles?* **Quis** ego sum, *who am I?* **Quid** ego dicō, *what am I saying?* **Qui** locus est, *what place is there?* *what time?* **In** quā urbe vivimus, *in what sort of a city are we living?*

1. This distinction between **quis** and **qui**, **quid** and **quod**, was almost or quite unknown in early Latin, and it is not always observed even by Cicero:

Quis homō tē rapit, *what man is seizing you?* P. Rud. 870 **Quis** rēx umquam fuit, *what king was there ever?* C. D. v. 1, 43, 95.

2. Which of two is generally expressed by **uter**. Which one of a larger number is expressed by **quis**:

Quaeritur, ex duobus, **uter** dignior; ex pluribus, **quis** dignissimus; *of two, we ask, which is the more worthy; of a larger number, who is the most worthy;* Quint. 7, 4, 21.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudāvit, *who defrauded, and whom did he defraud* (who defrauded whom)? C. Rosc. C. 7, 21.

4. **Tantus** sometimes accompanies the Interrogative Pronoun:

Qui tantus fuit labor, *what so great labor was there?* C. Dom. 11, 27.

5. **Quid**, *why? how is that?* is often used adverbially, or stands apparently unconnected: **quid enim**, *why then? what then? what indeed?* **quid ita**, *why so?* **quid quod**, *what of the fact that?* **quid si**, *what if?*

Loquere, **quid** vēnistī, *say, why have you come?* **Quid?** nōnne respondēbis, *what? will you not reply?* **Quid** quod dēlectantur, *what of the fact that they are delighted?* C. Fin. 5, 19, 52.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

512. **Quis**, **ali-quis**, **quis-piam**, and **qui-dam** may be conveniently grouped together. Of these, **quis**, *any one*, is the most indefinite, and **quidam**, *a certain one*, the least indefinite, while **aliquis** and **quispiam**, *some one*, not distinguished from each other in meaning, are less indefinite than **quis**, but more so than **quidam**:

Si qua civitās fecisset aliquid eius modi, *if any state had done anything of this kind.* **Num** quid vis aliud, *do you wish anything else?* **Pōnere** iubēbam, dē quō quis audire vellet, *I asked any one to name the subject about which he (any one) might wish to hear;* C. Tusc. 1, 4, 7 **Forsitan** aliquis eius modi quippiam fecerit, *perhaps some one may have done something of the kind.* **Est** aliquod nūmen, *there is a divinity.* **Accurrit** quidam, nōtus mihi nōmine tantum, *a certain one runs up, known to me only by name;* H. S. 1, 9, 8.

1. **Quis** as a substantive, and **quī** as an adjective, are used chiefly after **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, **num**, and in Relative clauses; see the first three examples above. They sometimes stand in the relative clause, even when logically they seem to belong to the antecedent clause, as in the third example.

2. Most of the forms of **aliquis** may be used either as nouns or as adjectives, but **aliquid** is a noun, and **aliquod** an adjective. **Aliquis** and **aliqui** sometimes mean some person or thing of importance, note, or value :

Audē aliquid, sī vīs esse aliquis, *dare something, if you wish to be anybody*; Iuv. 1, 73.

3. **Aliquis** seems at times to mean *many a one* :

Dixerat aliquis sententiam, *many a one had expressed his opinion*; Caes. C. 1, 2.

4. ***Aliquis** is sometimes used with numerals to denote an approximate number, chiefly in familiar Latin :

Aliquos vīginti diēs, *some twenty days*.

5. **Quidam**, with an adjective, is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement :

Est glōria solida quaedam rēs, *glory is a somewhat substantial thing*.

6. **Quidam** with **quasi** has the force of *a certain, a kind of, as it were* :

Quasi quaedam Sōcratica medicina, *a kind of Socratic medicine, as it were*.

7. **Nesciō quis** and **nesciō quī** often supply the place of indefinite pronouns, especially in poetry :

Hic nesciō quis loquitur, *here some one (I know not who) speaks*.

513. Quis-quam, *any one whatever*, is more general in its meaning than the simple **quis**, *any one*. This pronoun and the pronominal adjective **ūllus** are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences, implying a negative :

Neque mē quisquam ibi agnōvit, *and no one whatever recognized me there*; C. Tusc. 5, 36, 104. Num cēnsēs ūllum animal sine corde esse posse, *do you think that any animal can be without a heart?*

1. **Nēmō** is the negative of **quisquam**, and like **quisquam** is generally used as a noun, though with the designations of persons it may be used as an adjective :

Aut nēmō aut Catō sapiēns fuit, *either no one or Cato was wise*. Nēminem cōgnōvī poētā, *I have known no poet*; C. Tusc. 5, 22.

2. **Nūllus**, the negative of **ūllus**, is generally used as an adjective, though it regularly supplies the Genitive and Ablative of **nēmō** :

Nūlla aptior persōna, *no more suitable person*. Nēmīnem laesit; nūllus auris violāvit, *he has injured no one; he has shocked no one's ears*; C. Mur. 40, 87.

3. **Nūllus** and **nihil** are sometimes used for an emphatic **nōn** :

Philotimus nūllus vēnit, *Philotimus did not come*; C. Att. 11, 24.

GENERAL INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

514. Quīvis and **quīlibet** mean, *any one you wish, any one you please, any one whatever*; **quisque**, *every one, each one* :

Quīvis hērēs pecūniam potuit auferre, *any heir whatever might take the money*. Quidlibet faciat, *let him do what he likes*. Quod quisque dixit, *what every one said*.

515. Quisque is very freely used in Latin, but chiefly as follows :

1. After Reflexive, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns :

Ipse sē quisque diligit, *every one loves his self*. Dēfendat quod quisque sentit, *let every one defend his convictions* (what he thinks). Interest quōs quisque audiat, *it makes a difference whom each one hears*; C. Brut. 58, 210.

2. After Superlatives and Ordinals, where it is generally best rendered by *all, every*; with **primus** by *very, possible* :

Epicūrēōs doctissimus quisque contemnit, *all the most learned despise the Epicureans*. Quīntō quōque annō, *every four years* (every fifth year). Primō quōque tempore, *at the earliest possible opportunity, the very first*.

3. After **ūnus**, as in **ūnus quisque**, *every one, every person* :

Ego nōvī et ūnus quisque vestrum, *I know and every one of you knows*.

4. Observe that in all these examples, **quisque** follows the word with which it is associated. This is the usual order, but the reflexive often follows in poetry, and sometimes even in classical prose :

Quod est cūiusque mǎximē suum, *which is especially one's own*; C. Off. 1, 81.

5. **Ut quisque . . . ita** with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, *the more . . . the more* :

Ut quisque sibi plūrimum cōfīdit, ita mǎximē excellit, *the more confidence one has in one's self, the more one excels*; C. Am. 9, 30.

6. **Quotus quisque** means, *how rarely one, how few* :

Quotus quisque disertus est, *how rarely is one eloquent, or how few are eloquent*? C. Plane. 25, 62.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

516. *Alius* means *another, other*; *alter*, *the one, the other* (of two), *the second, a second*. They are often repeated: *alius . . . alius, one . . . another*; *alii . . . alii, some . . . others*; *alter . . . alter, the one . . . the other*; *alteri . . . alteri, the one party . . . the other*:

Aliud est male dicere, aliud accūsāre, it is one thing to revile, another to accuse. *Alii glōriæ serviunt, alii pecūniar, some are slaves to glory, others to money.* *Altera (fīlia) occīsa, altera capta est, one daughter was slain, the other captured*; *Cæs. 1, 53.* *Hamīlcar, Mārs alter, Hamīlcar, a second Mars*; *L. 21, 10, 8.* *Alteri dīmicant, alteri timent, one party fights, the other fears.*

1. *Alius* and *alter* repeated in different cases, or combined with *aliās* or *aliter*, form various idiomatic expressions, which, if judged by the English standard, would seem to be elliptical:

Alius alium domōs suās invitāt, they invite one another to their homes; *S. 66, 3.* *Aliter alii vivunt, some live in one way, others in another*; *C. ad Brut. 1, 11.* *Illī aliās aliud sentiunt, they entertain one opinion at one time, another at another*; *C. Or. 2, 7.*

2. The derivative adverbs, *aliās* and *aliter*, are sometimes repeated as correlatives, *aliās . . . aliās, at one time . . . at another time*, *aliter . . . aliter, in one way . . . in another way*:

Aliās beātus est, aliās miser, at one time he is happy, at another, unhappy; *cf. C. Flut. 2, 27, 87.*

3. After *alius*, *aliter*, and the like, *atque*, *ac*, and *et* often mean *than*, and *nisi*, *than or except*:

Nōn alius essem atque nunc sum, I would not be other than I am; *C. Fam. 1, 9, 21.* *Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesita vidētur, nothing except (other than) peace seems to have been sought*; *cf. C. Or. 1, 24, 80.*

4. *Uterque* means *both, each of two*. In the plural it generally means *both, each of two parties*, but sometimes *both, each of two persons or things*; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Uterque, māter et pater, domi erant, both, mother and father, were at home. *Utrique victōriam crudēlīter exercēbant, both parties made a cruel use of victory.* *Ē castris utrisque, out of both camps.*

5. *Uterque* standing in two different cases may mean *one . . . the other or one another*: *each . . . the other*:

Cum uterque utrique esset in cōspectū, since they were in sight of one another; *Cæs. 7, 85.*

SYNTAX OF VERBS

USE OF VOICES, NUMBERS, AND PERSONS

517. The Voices in Latin correspond in their general meaning and use to the Active and Passive Voices in English, but originally the Passive Voice had a reflexive meaning, like the Greek Middle, and was equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun, a meaning which is still retained in a few verbs, especially in poetry :

Lavantur in fluminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers ; Caes. 4, 1. *Carne vescēbantur, they lived upon (fed themselves with) flesh* ; S. 89. *Galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet* ; V. 2, 392. *Capita vēlāmur, we veil our heads* ; V. 8, 545.

518. Passive Construction.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively :

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. A deo mundus aedificātus est, the world was made by God.

1. Intransitive verbs have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive :

Curritur ad praetōrium, they run to the praetorium (there is running) ; C. Ver. 5, 85, 92. *Mihi cum iis vivendum est quōs vici, I must live with those whom I have conquered* ; C. C. 8, 12.

2. Some verbs, otherwise intransitive, occasionally form a personal passive in poetry :

Ego cūr, adquirere pauca si possum, invidior, why am I envied if I am able to add a few words ? H. A. P. 55. *Nunc tertia vivitur aetās, I am now living in the third age (the third age is being lived)* ; O. M. 12, 188.

3. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the meaning of the Active, or Middle. They have, however, certain forms of the Active ; see 222 :

Hōc mirābar, I wondered at this. Plūrimis rēbus fruimur, we enjoy (delight ourselves with) many things.

4. For Semi-Deponent Verbs, see 224.

PERSON AND NUMBER

519. In Latin an individual is regularly addressed in the singular, but the writer, or speaker, often refers to himself in the plural; see **500**, 2:

Sic rārō scribis, you write so seldom. De cēteris saepe dicēmus, I shall often speak of the other things; C. Sen. 1, 3.

1. For the Use of Voice, Number, and Person in Designating a General or Indefinite Subject, *you, we, people in general*, see **388**, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE THREE FINITE MOODS

520. The Indicative Mood, alike in present, past, and future time, represents the action of the verb as an actual fact:

Glōria virtūtem sequitur, glory follows merit. Quoniam de genere belli dixi, nunc de magnitudine dicam, since I have spoken of the character of the war, I shall now speak of its magnitude.

521. The Subjunctive Mood represents the action of the verb, as Possible, as Desired, or as Willed:

Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire; C. Rose. A. 2, 5. Valeant civēs mei, may my fellow citizens be well. Summū quisque nōscat ingenium, let every one learn to know his own character; C. Off. 1, 31, 114.

522. The Imperative Mood, like the Subjunctive, represents the action as willed or desired, but it is used almost exclusively in Commands and Prohibitions. Accordingly, in these the Imperative and Subjunctive supplement each other; see **560**:

Valētūdinem tuam cūrā, take care of your health. Salūs populi suprēma lēx estō, the safety of the people shall be (let it be) the supreme law; C. Leg. 3, 3. Nōllī imitārī malōs medicōs, do not imitate incompetent physicians; C. Fam. 4, 5, 5.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

523. Rule.—The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Rōmulus septem et trigintā rēgnavit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven years. Nōnne nōbilitārī volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Si haec civitas est, if this is a state.

1. The Indicative thus treats of facts, not only in the form of statements, as in the first example, but also in the form of questions, as in the second, and of conditions or assumptions, as in the third.

524. The Indicative, though more common in Principal Clauses, is also used in Subordinate Clauses, but only in treating of Facts. Thus

1. In Relative Clauses :

Hominēs id, quod volunt, crēdunt, men believe that which they wish.

For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see **589**.

2. In Conditional Clauses :

Si haec civitās est, if this is a state.

For the Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences, see **573**.

3. In Adversative and Concessive Clauses :

Quamquam festinās, nōn est mora longa, although you are in haste, the delay is not long.

For the Subjunctive in Adversative and Concessive Clauses, see **586**.

4. In Causal Clauses :

Quoniam supplicatiō dēcrēta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see **598**.

5. In Temporal Clauses :

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see **600**.

525. Special Uses.— Notice the following special uses of the Indicative, apparently somewhat at variance with the English idiom :

1. In expressions of Duty, Propriety, Ability, and the like; hence in the Periphrastic Conjugations, especially in conditional sentences :

Eum contumeliis onerāstī, quem colere dēbēbās,¹ you have loaded with insults one whom you ought to have revered ; C. Phil. 2, 38. Nōn suscipi bellum oportuit,¹ the war should not have been undertaken ; L. 5, 4. Multōs possum¹ bonōs virōs nōmināre, I might name (I am able to name) many good men ; C. Tusc. 2, 19. Relictūri agrōs erant,¹ nisi litterās misisset, they

¹ In these examples, the peculiarity in the use of the Indicative is only apparent. Here, as elsewhere, it deals only with facts. Thus, *quem colere dēbēbās, whom it was your duty, in fact, to revere ; oportuit, it was actually proper that the war should not be undertaken ; possum, I am able, etc. ; relictūri erant, they were about to leave, or on the point of leaving.*

would have left their lands if he had not sent a letter; C. Ver. 3, 52. *Haec conditiō nōn accipiēda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted.*

2. The Indicative of the verb **sum** is often used with **longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, iustum, melius, pār, ūtilius**, etc., in such expressions as **longum est**, *it would be tedious*; **melius erat**, *it would have been better*:

Longum est omnia enumerāre proelia, *it would be tedious (it is a long task) to enumerate all the battles*; N. 23, 5. **Melius fuerat, prōmissum nōn esse servātum**, *it would have been better (it had been better) that the promise should not have been kept*; C. Off. 3, 25.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled, or by assuming the suffix **cumque**, and the Conjunctions **sive . . . sive**, take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiēs, *whoever he may be (is), he is wise*; C. Tusc. 4, 17. **Hōc ultimum, utcumque initum est, proelium fuit**, *this, however it may have been begun, was the last battle*; L. 16, 6. **Veniet tempus, sive retrāctābis, sive properābis**, *the time will come whether you may be reluctant or in haste*; C. Tusc. 1, 31, 76.

4. The Historical Tenses of the Indicative, particularly the Pluperfect, are sometimes used for effect, to represent, as an actual fact, something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vicerāmus, nisi recēpisset Antōnium, *we should have (we had) conquered, had he not received Antony.*

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

526. The Latin, like the English, distinguishes three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future: **legō**, *I am reading*; **legēbam**, *I was reading*; **legam**, *I shall be reading*.

527. In each of the three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented in three different ways. It may be Incomplete, Completed, or Indefinite. An action is said to be Indefinite when it is viewed in its simple occurrence without reference to duration or completion.

528. The Latin has special forms for Incomplete and Completed action, but it has no special forms for Indefinite action, as is shown in the following:

529.

TABLE OF TENSES

TIME	ACTION		
	Incomplete	Completed	Indefinite
Present .	{ Pres. legō , <i>I am reading</i>	Perf. lēgī , <i>I have read</i>	Pres. legō , <i>I read</i>
Past . .	{ Imperf. legēbam , <i>I was reading</i>	Pluperf. lēgeram , <i>I had read</i>	Hist. perf. lēgī , <i>I read</i>
Future .	{ Fut. legam , <i>I shall be reading</i>	Fut. perf. lēgerō , <i>I shall have read</i>	Fut. legam , <i>I shall read</i>

1. In this table, observe that Indefinite action for Present and Future time is denoted by the Present and Future tenses, and for Past time by the Historical Perfect.

NOTE.—Observe that the Present and Future may denote either Incomplete action, *I am reading*, *I shall be reading*, or indefinite action, *I read*, *I shall read*; and the Perfect, either Completed action in Present time, *I have read*, or Indefinite action in Past time, *I read*.

530. All the tenses for Incomplete action, the Present, Imperfect, and Future, may denote an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Sēdābant tumultūs, they were trying to quell the seditions. Expōnam cōsiliū, I shall attempt to explain my plan.

531. In the Periphrastic Conjugation, the tenses of the verb **sum** preserve their usual force, and the meaning of any periphrastic form is readily obtained by combining the proper meaning of the participle with that of the tense. Thus the Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes a present intention, or an action about to take place, and the Perfect, a past intention, or an action which was about to take place; the Present of the Passive Periphrastic denotes a present necessity or duty, and the Perfect, a past necessity:

Bellum scriptūrus sum, I am about to write the history of the war. Quid futurū fuit, what would have been (was about to be) the result? Ea faciēda sunt, those things ought to be (must be) done. Haec condiciō nōn accipiēda fuit, this condition should not have been (was not one that ought to be) accepted; C. Att. 3, 3.

I. Present Indicative

532. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time. It is used

1. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time :

Ego et Cicerō valēmus, *Cicero and I are well.*

2. Of actions and events which belong to all time, as, for instance, of general truths and customs :

Nihil est virtūte amābilius, *nothing is more lovely than virtue* ; C. Am. 8, 28. Fortēs fortūna adiuvat, *fortune helps the brave* ; T. Ph. 208.

3. Of past actions and events which the writer, transferring himself to the past, represents as taking place before his eyes. It is then called the Historical Present, and is generally best rendered by a past tense, as the Historical Present is much more common in Latin than in English :

Duās illi legiōnēs cōscribit, *he there enrolled two legions.* Caes. 1, 10. Vallō moenia circumdat, *he surrounded the city with a rampart.*

533. Special Uses.—1. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after **iam diū**, **iam dūdum**, etc. :

Iam diū ignōrō quid agās, *I have not known for a long time how you are* ; C. Fam. 7, 9.

2. The Present is sometimes used of an action really Future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions :

Quam prēdimus arcem, *what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize?* v. 2, 322. Si vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, *if we conquer, all things will be well* ; S. C. 58, 9.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant :

Xenophōn facit Sōcratē disputantē, *Xenophon represents Socrates as discussing* ; C. N. D. 1, 12, 31.

4. With **dum**, *while*, the Historical Present is generally used, but with **dum** meaning *as long as*, each tense has its usual force :

Dum hæc geruntur, Cæsari nūtiātum est, *while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar* ; Caes. 1, 46. Vixit, dum vixit, bene, *he lived well as long as he lived* ; T. Hee. 461.

II. Imperfect Indicative

534. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time. It is used

1. Of actions going on at the time of other past actions :

An tū erās cōsul, cum mea domus ārlebat, *or were you consul when my house was burning?* C. Pls. 11, 26.

2. In lively descriptions of scenes, or events :

Ante oppidum plānitēs patēbat, *before the town extended a plain.* Fulgentēs gladiōs vidēbant, *they saw the gleaming swords;* C. Tusc. 2, 21, 59.

3. Of Customary or Repeated actions and events, often best rendered *was wont*, etc. :

Epulābātur mōre Persāren., *he was wont to banquet in the Persian style.*

535. Special Uses. — 1. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with *iam*, *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, etc.¹:

Domiciliū Rōmæ multōs iam annōs habēbat, *he had already for many years had his residence at Rome;* cf. C. Arch. 4, 1.

2. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect, where the English idiom requires the Present²:

Pāstum animantibus nātūra eum, quī cuique aptus erat, comparāvit, *nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each.*

3. For the Imperfect of an Attempted Action, see 530.
4. For the Imperfect in letters, see 539, 1.
5. For the Descriptive Imperfect in Narration, see 538, 2.

III. Future Indicative

536. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time :

Scribam ad tē, *I shall write to you.* Numquam aberrābinus, *we shall never go astray.*

¹ Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

² This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth, or the scene, is viewed not from the present, as in English, but from the past.

1. The Future, like the Present, is sometimes used of General Truths and Customs :

Nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, *if we follow (shall follow) nature, we shall never go astray.*

2. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative :

Cūrābis et scrībēs, *you will take care and write.*

IV. Perfect Indicative

537. The Perfect Indicative performs the duties of two tenses, originally distinct.

1. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with *have* :

Dē genere bellī dixī, *I have spoken of the character of the war.*

2. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, corresponding to the Greek Aorist, it represents the action simply as an historical fact :

Accūsātus est prōditiōnis, *he was accused of treason.*

538. Special Uses. — 1. The Perfect is sometimes used to contrast the past with the present, implying that what *has been* or *was true* in the past *is not true* at present. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with *fuī* :

Habuit, nōn habet, *he had, but he has not*; C. Tusc. 1, 36. Fuit Īlium, *Itum* *has been, or was*; V. 2, 325. Bis Iānus clausus fuit, *Janus has been twice closed*; L. 1, 19.

2. In Animated Narrative the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances :

Cultum mūtāvit, veste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur mōre Persārum, *he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, and feasted in the Persian style*; N. 4, 3, 1.

3. Conjunctions meaning *as soon as, after*, — **ubi, simul atque, postquam, posteaquam**, etc., — when used of past actions, are generally followed by the Perfect or by the Historical Present. The Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the Result of a Completed action :

Ubi certiōrēs facti sunt, *as soon as they were informed*; Caes. 1, 7. Simul atque intrōductus est, *as soon as he was introduced*. Posteaquam in Formiānō sum, *as soon as I am in my Formian villa*. Simul atque in oppidum vēnerat, *as soon as he had come into a town*; C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

4. Many Latin Perfects may denote either a completed action or the Present Result of that action. Thus *cōgnōvī* may mean either *I have learned* or *I know*; *cōnsuēvī*, *I have accustomed myself* or *I am wont*; *doctus sum*, *I have been taught* or *I am learned*. In this and similar cases the Participle practically becomes an Adjective. In a few of these verbs the second meaning has mostly supplanted the first, so that the Perfect seems to have the time of the Present, the Pluperfect that of the Imperfect, and the Future Perfect that of the Future:

*Nōvī omnem rem, I know the whole thing. Meminit praeteritōrum, he remembers the past.*¹ *Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Fuit doctus ex disciplina Stoicōrum, he was instructed in (out of) the learning of the Stoics*; C. Brut. 25, 94.

5. The Perfect is sometimes used of General Truths, Repeated Actions, and Customs. It is then called the Gnomie Perfect²; and if it is used in a Subordinate clause, the Present is generally retained in the Principal clause, though in Poetry and Late Prose the Perfect sometimes occurs:

Pecūniam nēmō sapiēns concupivit, no wise man too eagerly desires (has desired) money; S. C. 11, 8. *Omnia sunt incerta, cum ā iūre discessum est, all things are uncertain, whenever one departs from the right*; C. Fam. 9, 16. *Omne tulit punctum qui miscuit ūtile dulci, he wins (has won) every vote who combines the useful with the agreeable*; H. A. P. 343.

6. The Perfect with *paene, prope*, may often be rendered by *might, would*, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brūtum nōn minus amō, paene dixī, quam tē, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, than I love you; C. Att. 5, 20.

7. For the Perfect in letters, see 539, 1.

V. Pluperfect Indicative

539. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at the time of some other past action, either already mentioned or to be mentioned in a subsequent clause:

Pyrri tempore iam Apollō versūs facere dēserat, in the time of Pyrrhus, Apollo had already ceased to make verses. Cōpiās quās prō oppidō collocāverat, in oppidum recipit, he received into the town the forces which he had stationed in front of the town.

¹ Literally *has recalled*, and so *remembers*, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act; the English, the result.

² This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomie Aorist in Greek.

1. In letters the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past. This change — which is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer — is most common near the beginning and the end of letters:

Nihil habēbam quod scriberem; ad tuās omnēs rescripseram pridie, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday; C. Att. 9, 10. Pridie Idūs haec scripsi; eō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus,¹ I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius; C. Q. Fr. 2, 3, 7.

NOTE. — Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. *Hērī, yesterday*, becomes to the reader *pridie, the day before*, i.e. the day before the writing of the latter. In the same way *hodie, to-day, this day*, becomes to the reader *eō diē, that day*.

2. The Pluperfect after *cum, si*, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs:

Cum quaequam cohors impetum fecerat, hostēs refugiēbant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated; Caes. 5, 35.

3. The Pluperfect may state what had been true at some previous past time, implying that it was no longer true at the time of the writer. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with *fuera* :

Pōns, qui fuerat interruptus, paene erat reffectus,² the bridge which had been broken down was (had been) almost repaired.

4. For the special use of the Pluperfect in general, see 525, 4.

5. For the Pluperfect of Special verbs, see 538, 4.

VI. Future Perfect Indicative

540. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rōmam cum vēnerō, quae perspexerō, scribam ad tē, when I reach (shall have reached) Rome, I shall write you what I have (shall have) ascertained; C. Q. Fr. 3, 7. Ut sēmentem feceris, ita metēs, as you sow (shall have made the sowing), so shall you reap; C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Plūra scribam, si plūs otii habuerō, I shall write more if I have (shall have had) more leisure; C. Fam. 10, 23.

¹ The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of future events which are expected to happen before the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

² Observe that it was no longer a broken (*interruptus*) bridge, as it had been repaired (*reffectus*).

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the Complete Accomplishment of the work :

Ego meum officium praestiterō, *I shall discharge* (shall have discharged) *my duty*; Caes. 4, 25.

2. The examples here given of the Future Perfect, together with those of the Future under 536, illustrate the fact that the Latin is very exact in expressing future time and completed action, while the English, in subordinate clauses, and especially in conditional clauses, often disregards both.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

541. The four tenses of the Subjunctive perform the duties of the six tenses of the Indicative, and are, accordingly, used as follows :

1. They have in general the same temporal meaning as the corresponding tenses of the Indicative :

Sunt qui dicant, *there are some who say*; S. C. 19. Fuere qui crēderent, *there were some who believed*; S. C. 17. Oblitus es quid dixerim, *you have forgotten what I said*; C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Caesari cum id nūtiātum esset, *when this had been announced to Caesar*; Caes. 1, 7.

2. In addition to this general use, these four tenses supply the place of the Future and of the Future Perfect, the Present and the Imperfect supplying the place of the Future; the Perfect and the Pluperfect, that of the Future Perfect, but chiefly in subordinate clauses denoting relative time, though the Present, even in principal clauses, often embraces both present and future time :

Erit tempus cum dēsiderēs, *the time will come when you will desire*; C. Mil. 26, 69. Loquēbantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, scēse nōn esse pūgnātūrōs, *they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it*; Caes. C. 1, 72. Egestātem suam se lātūrum putat, si hāc suspiciōne liberātus sit, *he thinks he will bear his poverty if he shall have been freed from this suspicion*; C. Rosc. A. 44. Dicēbam, simul ac timēre dēsisēs, similem tē futūrum tui, *I was saying that as soon as you should cease* (shall have ceased) *to fear, you would be like yourself*; C. Phil. 2, 35.

NOTE 1. — But the place of the Future may be supplied by the Present and Imperfect of the active Periphrastic Conjugation, and is generally so supplied when the idea of future time is emphatic; see Table of Subjunctive Tenses, 544.

NOTE 2. — In the passive, the place of the Future Perfect is sometimes supplied by futūrus sim and futūrus essem with the Perfect Participle;

SYNTAX

Nōn dubitō quin cōfecta iam rēs futūra sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished ; C. Fam. 6, 12, 8.

3. By a transfer of tenses, the Imperfect Subjunctive, in Conditional Sentences and in expressions of Wish, refers to Present time, and the Pluperfect to Past time :

Plūra scriberem, si possem, I would write more (i.e. now) if I were able (but I am not) ; C. Att. 8, 15, 3. **Si voluisset, dimicasset, if he had wished, he would have fought ;** N. 23, 8, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE TIME

542. The time of an action is said to be Absolute when it has no reference to the time of any other action, but it is said to be Relative when it indicates the Temporal Relation that the action sustains to some other action. Thus, in independent clauses, the Present, Perfect, and Future express absolute time, but in dependent clauses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes other tenses, express relative time :

Hasdrubal tum, cum haec gerēbantur, apud Syphacem erat, Hasdrubal, at the time when these things were taking place, was with Syphax ; L. 29, 81.

Here **gerēbantur** denotes relative time, action going on at the time of **erat**, — Contemporaneous Action.

Cōpiās quās prō oppidō collocāverat, in oppidum recēpit, he received into the town the forces which he had stationed before it ; Cues. 7, 71.

Here **collocāverat** denotes relative time, action completed at the time of **recēpit**, — Prior Action.

Cupio scire ubi sis hiemātūrus, I desire to know where you will spend the winter ; C. Fam. 7, 9.

Here **sis hiemātūrus** denotes relative time, action about to take place, but still future at the time of **cupio**, — Subsequent Action.

543. In Dependent clauses, the tenses of the Subjunctive generally denote relative time, and they may represent the action of the verb as going on at the time of the principal verb, Contemporaneous action ; as completed at that time, Prior action ; or, as about to take place, Subsequent action. Moreover, they conform to the following rule for

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Rule. — Principal tenses depend on Principal tenses, and Historical on Historical :

Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is, C. Tusc. 1, 22, 58. Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what the faults were; C. Rosc. A. 14, 41. Rogāvit essentne fūsi hostēs, he asked whether the enemy had been routed; C. Fin. 2, 90, 97.

544.

TABLE OF SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE	DEPENDENT CLAUSE		
	Contemporaneous Action	Prior Action	Subsequent Action
PRINCIPAL TENSES			
Quaerō	quid faciās	quid fēceris	{ quid faciās quid factūrus sis
Quaeram			
Quaesiērō			
I ask	what you are doing	what you have done	{ what you will do
I shall ask			
I shall have asked			
HISTORICAL TENSES			
Quaerēbam	quid facerēs	quid fēcissēs	{ quid facerēs quid factūrus essēs
Quaesiui			
Quaesiēram			
I was asking	what you were doing	what you had done	{ what you would do
I asked			
I had asked			

545. In this table, observe :

I. That the Subjunctive dependent on a Principal Tense is put :

1. In the Present, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
2. In the Perfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action, and
3. In the Present, either of the simple, or the periphrastic, form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action :

Quaeritur cūr dissentiant, *the question is asked why they disagree*. Nēmō erit qui censeat, *there will be no one who will think*. Nōn dubitārī debet, quān fuerint ante Homērum poētae, *it ought not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer*; C. Brut. 19. Quid diēs ferat incertum est, *what a day will bring forth is uncertain*. Incertum est, quam longa vita futūra sit, *it is uncertain how long life will continue*; C. Ver. 1, 58.

II. That the Subjunctive dependent on an Historical Tense is put

1. In the Imperfect, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
2. In the Pluperfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action; and
3. In the Imperfect, either of the simple, or of the periphrastic form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action:

Quaesivit, salvasne esset clipeus, *he asked whether his shield was safe*; C. Fin. 2, 80, 97. Cum tridui viam processisset, nuntiātum est ei, *when he had advanced a three days' journey, it was announced to him*. Timēbam nē evenirent ea, *I feared that those things would happen*. Incertum erat quō missūri classem forent, *it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet*; L. 30, 2.

PECULIARITIES IN THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

546. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Indicative, the Historical Present, the Present used of authors, and the Historical Infinitive are generally Historical tenses, though sometimes used as Principal tenses:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposui,¹ *since I have shewn what aids you have*; Q. C. Pet. Contr. 4, 13. Oblitus es quid dixerim, *you have forgotten what I said*; C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Persuādet Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret, *he persuaded Casticus to seize the government*; Caes. 1, 3. Ubī ōrant ut sibi parcat, *the Ubii implored him to spare them*; Caes. 6, 9.

547. The Imperfect Subjunctive, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an Historical tense:

Si probārem, quae ille diceret, *if I approved what he says*; C. Fin. 1, 8, 27.

1. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Subjunctive is generally a Principal tense, but in relation to another Subjunctive depending upon it it is generally Historical:

Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, quārē is patrī displiceret, *let us inquire what were the faults by which he displeased his father*; C. Rose. A. 14, 41.

¹ Observe that *exposui* and *persuādet* are treated as historical tenses, while *oblitus es* and *ōrant* are treated as principal tenses.

NOTE. — Here *fuertint* is a principal tense in relation to *quaeramus*, but in relation to *dispiceret* it is historical.

548. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an Historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time :

Satis docuisse videor, hominis naturā quantō antefret animantēs, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses (that of) the other animals; C. N. D. 2, 61. 133. Spērō fore¹ ut contingat, I hope it will happen; C. Tusc. 1, 84. Nōn spērauerat fore ut ad se dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him; L. 23, 44. Misērunt Delphōs cōsultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do; N. 2, 2.

549. Clauses containing a General Truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom :

Quanta cōscientiāe vis esset, ostendit. he showed how great is the power of conscience; C. C. 3, 5, 11.

550. In clauses denoting Result, or Consequence, the Subjunctive tenses have the ordinary temporal force of the corresponding tenses of the Indicative :

Atticus ita vixit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians; N. 25, 2. Adeō excellēbat Aristidēs abstinentiā, ut iustus sit appellātus, Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just; N. 3, 1.

1. Observe the temporal force of these Subjunctives : *esset*, was, result continuing in past time, the usual force of the Imperfect ; *sit appellātus*, has been called, the usual force of the Present Perfect.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

551. The Latin Subjunctive performs the duties of two moods originally distinct, the Subjunctive and the Optative. It comprises three varieties² :

¹ Literally, *I hope it will be that it may happen*. Here *fore* shares the tense of *spērō*, and is accordingly followed by the Present, *contingat* ; but below it shares the tense of *spērauerat*, and is followed by the Imperfect, *dēficerent*.

² The three varieties of the Latin Subjunctive were all inherited from the mother tongue—the Potential and the Optative from the original Optative, and the Volitive from the original Subjunctive.

- I. Subjunctive of Possibility, or Potential Subjunctive, which represents the action as Possible; see 552.
- II. Subjunctive of Desire, or Optative Subjunctive, which represents the action as Desired; see 558.
- III. Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive, which represents the action as Willed; see 559.

Potential Subjunctive

552. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is *nōn* :

Forsitan quæratīs, perhaps you may inquire; C. Rosc. A. 2. *Forsitan aliquis quippiam fēcērit, perhaps some one may have done something*; C. Ver. 2, 82, 78. *Ita laudem invenīās, thus you (any one) may or will win praise*; T. And. 65. *Ubi sōcordiæ tē trādiderīs, nēquiquam deōs implōrēs, when you have given yourself up to sloth, you will implore the gods in vain*; S. C. 52, 29. *Eum facile vitāre possīs, you may easily avoid him*; C. Ver. 1, 15, 89. *Hoc sine ullā dubitātiōe cōfirmāverim, this I should assert without any hesitation*; C. Brut. 6, 25.

553. In these examples observe that the Potential Subjunctive in its widest application includes two varieties :

1. The **Potential Subjunctive** in a strict sense is comparatively rare.
2. The **Conditional Subjunctive** represents the action as dependent on a condition, expressed or implied, but the condition is often so very vague and so fully implied in the mood itself, as in the last two examples, that there is no need of supplying it, even in thought, but when it is expressed, the two clauses form a regular conditional sentence; see 572, 573.

554. On the use of Tenses, observe :

1. That the Present may be used of Incomplete actions either in Present or Future time : *quispiam dicat, some one may say, now or at any time*; see also 541, 2.

2. That the Perfect may be used of Completed actions either in Present time, as in the second example, or in Future time, as in the last example. When used of Future time, it may be compared with the special use of the Future Perfect described in 540, 1. Like that it fixes the attention on the Completion or the Result of the action, and like that it is used especially in earnest and impassioned discourse.

3. That the Imperfect is sometimes used in its original meaning as a Past tense : *tum dicerēs, you would then have said*, and sometimes in its later

transferred meaning to represent the statement as contrary to fact : **dicerēs**, *you would say*. The latter is its regular meaning in conditional sentences ; see 579.

555. In simple sentences, the Potential Subjunctive is most common in the third person singular with an indefinite subject, as **aliquis**, **quispiam**, as in the second example under the rule, and in the second person singular of the Imperfect, used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *one*, *any one* :

Dicerēs ,	<i>you, any one, would say, or would have said</i>
Scirēs ,	<i>you, any one would know, or would have known</i>
Crēderēs , putārēs ,	<i>you would have believed, would have thought</i>
Cernerēs , vidērēs ,	<i>you would have perceived, would have seen</i>

Canēs **vēnaticōs** **dicerēs**, *hunting dogs you would have called them* ; C. Ver. 4, 13, 31. **Maesti**, **crēderēs** **victōs**, *redeant in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to camp* ; L. 2, 43.

556. In the language of Politeness and Modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in the first person of the Present and Imperfect of verbs of Wishing, as **velim**, *I should wish* **nōlim**, *I should be unwilling* ; **mālim**, *I should prefer* ; **vellem**, *I should wish, or should have wished* ; **nōllem**, *I should be unwilling, or should have been unwilling* ; **māllem**, *I should prefer, or should have preferred* :

Si **quid** **habēs** **certius**, **velim** **scire**, *if you have any tidings, I should like to know it* ; C. Att. 1, 10. **Ego** **tē** **salvum** **vellem**, *I should wish you safe* ; Pl. Pseud. 309. **Nōllem** **factum**, *I should not have wished it done* ; T. Ad. 165.

1. For the Subjunctive, with or without **ut**, dependent upon **velim**, or **vellem**, see 558, 4 ; 565.

557. Potential Questions. — The Potential Subjunctive is used in questions to ask, not what *is*, but what *is likely to be*, what *may be*, *would be*, or *should be* :

Quis **dubitet**, *who would doubt, or who doubts* ? **Cūr** **ego** **nōn** **laeter**, *why should I not rejoice* ? **Cūr** **Cornēlium** **nōn** **dēfenderem**, *why should I not have defended Cornelius* ? C. Vat. 2, 5.

Optative Subjunctive

558. Rule. — The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is **nē** :

Sint incolumēs, sint flōrentēs, sint beāti, may they be safe, may they be prosperous, may they be happy; C. MU. 94, 93. *Stet haec urbs praeclāra, may this illustrious city stand secure. Id sit quod spērō, may that which I hope take place. Illud utinam nē scriberem, would that I were not writing this*; C. FAM. 5, 17, 8. *Utinam omuēs servāre potuisset, would that he had been able to save all*; C. Ph. 5, 14, 39.

1. **Force of Tenses.** — The Present implies that the wish may be fulfilled, as in the first three examples; the Imperfect and Pluperfect that it cannot be fulfilled, as in the last two examples.

NOTE. — In rare instances in early and familiar Latin the Perfect is used to emphasize the Completion of the action, as in 554, 2:

Utinam haec mūta facta sit, may she be (have been made) dumb; T. And. 463.

2. **Utinam** is regularly used, with rare exceptions in poetry, with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes with the Present.

3. The first person of the Optative Subjunctive is often found in earnest and solemn affirmations:

Nē sim salvus, si aliter scribō ac sentiō, may I not be safe, if I write otherwise than as I think; C. Att. 16, 13. *Sollicitat, ita vivam, mē, as I live, it troubles me*¹; C. Fam. 16, 20.

4. Wishes may also be introduced by **velim** and **vellem**:

Vellim vērum sit, I wish it may be true; C. Att. 15, 4. *Velim mihi ignoscās, I wish you would pardon me*; C. Fam. 13, 75. *Vellem vērum fuisset, I wish it had been true*²; C. Att. 15, 4.

5. In early Latin, wishes are sometimes introduced by **ut** and in poetry sometimes, though rarely, by **si**, or **ō si**:

Ut illum dī perdant, would that the gods would destroy him; T. Eun. 302. *Si nunc sē aureus rāmus ostendat, would that (if) the golden branch would show itself*; V. 6, 187. *O mihi praeteritōs referat si Iuppiter annōs, O if Jupiter would restore to me my past years*; V. 8, 560.

Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive

559. Rule. — The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real but as Willed. The negative is

¹ Here *ita vivam* means, *may I so live*, i.e. may I live only in case this statement, *sollicitat, it troubles me*, is true.

² Here *velim* and *sit* were originally independent Subjunctives, meaning *I should wish, may it be true*, the first Subjunctive being potential and the second optative, but subsequently the two verbs became so closely united in thought that *sit* became practically the object of *velim*, *I should wish (what?) that it may be true*. *Vellem fuisset* has had the same history.

nē. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties :

1. The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense :

Amēnus patriam, cōsulāmus bonis, let us love our country, let us consult for the good ; C. Sest. 68, 148. *Nē difficilia optēmus, let us not desire difficult things.*

2. The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person and generally best rendered by *let* ; but see 560 :

Dēsinant insidiārī domī suae cōsulī, let them cease to lie in wait for the consul in his own house ; C. C. 1, 18.

3. The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions :

Sit ista rēs magna, admit that that is (let that be) an important matter. Nē sit summum malum dolor, grant that pain may not be the greatest evil ; C. Tusc. 2, 5, 14. *Age, sit ita factum, well, admit that it took place thus ;* C. Mil. 19, 49.

4. The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued and that he desires to be directed :

Quid agam, iudicēs, what am I to do, judges ? Quid agerem, iudicēs, what was I to do, judges ? C. Sest. 19, 48. *Quō mō vertam, whither am I to turn ?* *Ēloquar an sileam, am I to speak, or be silent ?* *Rogem tē ut veniās ? nōn rogem, am I to ask you to come ? am I not to ask you ?* C. Fam. 14, 4, 8.

NOTE.—The negative **nē**, which always implies a negative wish, is not used in deliberative questions, as they ask affirmatively what the wish of the hearer is. The negative **nōn** sometimes occurs, but it always limits some particular word and never implies a negative wish : *rogem tē, is it your wish that I should ask you ? nōn rogem tē, is it your wish that I should not ask you ?*

5. **Repudiating Questions.**—The Subjunctive with or without **ut** is also used in questions which express Surprise or Impatience, especially common in Early Latin :

Auscultā, quaesō, listen, I pray. Ego auscultem tibi, am I to listen to you ? Pl. Mil. 496. *Tē ut ūlla rēs frangat, how is anything to subdue you ?* C. C. 1, 9.

NOTE.—Deliberative and Repudiating questions may be readily distinguished from the Potential questions considered under 557. The latter never represent the speaker as in any doubt or perplexity. They are mostly rhetorical questions, used for rhetorical effect in place of assertions, as **quis dubitet**, *who would doubt?* equivalent to **nēmō dubitet**, or **nēmō dubitat**.

6. The Subjunctive is occasionally used to state what *should have been* or *ought to have been* :

Potius diceret, *he should have said rather*. Restitissēs, mortem pūgnāns oppetissēs, *you should have resisted, should have met death in battle*; C. Sest. 20, 54, 45.

7. Note the following use of the Subjunctive with **nēdum**, *do not think, not to say, much less* :

Satrapa numquam sufferre sūptūs queat, nēdum tū possis, *a satrap would not be able to bear the expense, much less would you be able* (do not think that you would); T. Heaut. 452. Nec potuerunt, nēdum possimus, *and they were not able, much less should we be able*; C. Clu. 35, 95.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

560. Rule.—In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third :

Liberā rem pūblicam metū, *free the republic from fear*; C. C. 1, 8. Pergrate, ut facitis, *go on, as you are now doing*. Suum quisque nōscat ingenium, *let every one know his own character*. Sēcernent sē ā bonīs, *let them separate themselves from the good*; C. C. 1, 13.

1. The second person of the Present Subjunctive may be used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *one, any one*, and in early Latin and in the poets, even of a definite person :

Istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit, *use that blessing of yours, while it is with you*; C. Sen. 10, 83. Apud nōs hodiē cēnēs, *dine with us to-day*; Pl. Most. 1129.

2. The Future Imperative may be used in the sense of the Present, if the latter is wanting, as **scitō**, **scitōte**, **mementō**, **mementōte**, etc. :

Mementōte hōs esse pertimēscendōs, *remember that these are to be feared*.

3. An Imperative may supply the place of a Conditional clause :

Lacesse, iam vidēbis furem, *provoke him* (if you provoke him), *you will at once see him frantic*.

4. In Commands involving future rather than present action, and in Laws, Orders, Precepts, etc., the Future Imperative is used:

Rem penditōte, you shall consider the subject. Crās petitō, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Salūs populi suprēma lēx estō, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law; C. Leg. 3, 3.

NOTE. — The place of the Future Imperative is sometimes supplied by the Future Indicative:

Quod optimum vidēbitur. faciēs, do (you will do) what shall seem best.

561. Prohibitive Sentences. — In ordinary Prohibitive Sentences the following forms occur:

1. **NŌLI** and **nŌLITE** with the Infinitive. This is the approved form in classical prose:

Nŏlite id velle quod fieri nŏn potest, do not desire that which cannot be done; C. Ph. 7, 8, 25

2. **Cavē, cavē nē, fac nē, or nē** with the Subjunctive. These forms are common in early Latin, but rare in classical prose. The Perfect seems to emphasize the Completion or the Result of the action:

Cavē ignŏscās, do not pardon, beware of pardoning. Fac nē quid aliud cūrēs, do not attend to anything else. Nē cōferās culpam in mē, do not throw the blame on me; T. Eun. 388. Istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit; cum absit, nē requirās, use your blessing while it is with you; when it is gone, do not long for it; C. Sen. 10, 33. Iocum nē sis aspernātus, do not despise (be not having despised) the jest; C. Q. Fr. 2, 10, 5.

NOTE. — In prohibitions in Cicero, **nē** with the present Subjunctive is used only of general or indefinite subjects, as in the fourth example, and **nē** with the Perfect Subjunctive with a definite subject, as in the fifth example, is exceedingly rare.

3. In Prohibitive Laws and Ordinances the Future Imperative is used:

Hominem mortuum in urbe nē sepehitō, nēve ūritō, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city; in C. Leg. 2, 23.

4. **Negative in Prohibitive Sentences.** — The negative, when not contained in the auxiliary verb **nŏLI**, or **cavē**, is regularly **nē**; with a connective, **nē-ve**, or **ne-que**. **Nēve**, or **not**, is the regular connective in classical prose between Prohibitive clauses; **neque**, and **not**, admissible in prose to connect a Prohibitive clause with an affirmative command, is freely used in poetry between any two Imperative clauses, whether affirmative or negative:

*Nē sepelitō nēve aritō, do not bury nor burn. Habē taum negōtium nec existimā, manage your own business and do not consider*¹; C. Att. 12, 22, 3. *Nē cape nec tē civilibus insere bellis, do not take arms and do not involve yourself in civil wars*; O. M. 3, 116.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

562. 1. The meaning of the Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses is either precisely the same as in Principal Clauses, or is a natural development from that meaning. The following examples show the process by which an Affirmative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — *Vērum sit*,² *may it be true. Velim; vērum sit*,² *I should wish it; may it be true.*

Dependent. — *Velim vērum sit*, *I should wish (what?) that it may be true*; C. Att. 13, 4, 4.

Independent. — *Velim; beātus sis*, *I should wish it; may you be happy.*

Dependent. — *Velim ut beātus sis*, *I should wish (what?) that you may be happy*; C. Att. 10, 16, 1.

NOTE. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Affirmative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause; first, without any connective whatever, as in *velim vērum sit*; and, second, with the connective *ut*, as in *velim ut beātus sis*. With most verbs the second is the usual method.

2. The following examples show the process by which a Negative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — *Cūrā; nē quid Tulliae dēsit*, *see to it; let nothing be wanting to Tullia.*

Dependent. — *Cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit*, *see that nothing may be wanting to Tullia*; C. Att. 11, 3, 3.

Independent. — *Praedicit; nē lēgātōs dimittant*, *he gives the order: "let them not release the envoys."*

Dependent. — *Praedicit ut nē lēgātōs dimittant*, *he gives the order that they shall not release the envoys*; cf. N. 2, 7, 3.

¹ Observe that this use of *neque, nec, and not*, after an affirmative clause corresponds exactly to our use of 'and not' in the same situation: "and do not consider."

² *Vērum sit*, *may it be true*, is an Independent Subjunctive of Desire in these two examples, but in *velim vērum sit* it has become dependent upon *velim*, of which it is now the object, though it still continues to be a Subjunctive of Desire.

NOTE. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Negative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause: first, without any connective whatever, as in *cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit*, as *nē* belongs to the negative clause itself; and, second, with the connective *ut*, as in *praedicit ut nē lēgātōs dīmittant*. The former is the usual method.

563. A clause containing an Optative or Volitive Subjunctive, when dependent, may become,

1. A Substantive Clause, generally used as the Object of the Principal verb:

Velim ut beātus sis, *I should wish that you may be happy.*

2. An adverbial Clause, used to denote the Purpose or Intention of the action, often called a Final Clause:

Oportet ēsse ut vivās, *it is proper to eat in order that you may live.*

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

564. Rule. — The Subjunctive, generally with *ut* or *nē*, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose:

I. In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs:

Scribās ad mē velim, *I wish that you would write to me*; C. Att. 5, 2, 3. *Ōrant ut sibi pareat*, *they ask that he would pardon them*. *Suis imperāvit nē quod tēlum rēicerent*, *he enjoined upon his men that they should not hurl back any weapon*; Cæs. 1, 46, 2.

II. In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates:

In *epistulā scriptum erat, ut omnia parāret*,¹ *that he was to make all preparations had been written in the letter*; C. Att. 13, 45, 1. *Est lēx amicitiae, ut idem amici velint*, *it is a law of friendship, that friends should have the same wish*; C. Planc. 2, 5. *Altera est rēs ut rēs gerās magnās*, *the other thing is that you should perform great deeds*; C. Off. 1, 20, 66.

1. Subject Clauses sometimes take the Subjunctive without *ut*, regularly with *licet* and *oportet*, and generally with *necesse est*:

Sis licet fēlix,² *you may be happy* (it is allowed); H. 3, 27, 13. *Tē oportet virtūs trahat*, *virtue ought to attract you*; C. R. P. 6, 23. *Causam habeat, necesse est*, *it is necessary that it should have a cause*; C. Div. 2, 28.

¹ The Subjunctive Clause, *ut parāret*, is the subject of *scriptum erat*.

² *Sis fēlix*, originally independent of *licet*, *may you be happy*. So, too, *virtūs trahat*, independent of *oportet*, *let virtue attract*.

III. In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns :

Fecit pacem his conditionibus, nē quī adficerentur exiliō,¹ *he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile*; N. 8, 8. Id agunt, ut viri boni esse videantur,¹ *they strive for this, that they may appear to be good men*; C. Off. 1, 18.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES USED AS THE OBJECTS OF VERBS

565. Verbs meaning *to Desire, Wish, Ask, Command, Persuade, Determine, Decree*, and the like, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses :

Velim ut tibi amicus sit, *I wish him to be (that he may be) a friend to you*; C. Att. 10, 16. Tē hortor ut orationēs meas legās, *I exhort you to read my orations*; C. Off. 1, 1, 3. Ōrō ut hominēs cōservēs incolumēs, *I ask that you would keep the men unharmed*. Dēcrēvit senātus, ut Opimius vidēret, *the senate decreed that Opimius should see to it*. Huic persnādet ut ad hostēs transeat, *he persuaded him to go over to the enemy*. Praedixit ut nē lēgātōs dimitterent, *he charged them not to release the delegates*; N. 2, 7, 3. Hōc tē rogō, nē dēmittās animum, nēve tē obrui sinās, *I ask you not to be discouraged, and not to permit yourself to be overcome*; C. Qu. Fr. 1, 1, 4.

1. For the negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, see **561, 4**.

2. The regular constructions with **volō**, **mālō**, and **nōlō** are the Infinitive, with or without a Subject-Accusative, and the Subjunctive without **ut**, though **volō** and **mālō** sometimes take **ut** :

Vērum audire nōn vult, *he does not wish to hear the truth*. Mihi crēdās velim, *I wish you to believe me*. Id ut faciās velim, *I wish you to do this*.

3. **Iubeō** and **vetō** regularly take the Accusative and the Infinitive in the Active, with the Personal Constructions in the Passive; see **611, 1** :

Helvētios oppida restituere iussit, *he ordered the Helvetii to rebuild their towns*. Ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat, *he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave (depart from) the work*. Iubentur scribere exercitum, *they are ordered to enroll an army*.

4. Verbs meaning *to direct, urge, etc.*, and the Imperatives **fac** and **facitō** often take the Subjunctive without **ut**, and **cavē** sometimes takes the Subjunctive without **nō** :

¹ The clause **nō . . . exiliō**, originally a Volitive Subjunctive, is an Appositive to **conditiōibus** and **ut . . . videantur**, an Appositive to **Id**.

Labiēnō mandat Belgās adeat, he directs Labienus to visit the Belgae; cf. Caes. 8, 11, 2. *Fac plānē sciam, let me know fully (make that I may know);* C. Fam. 7, 16. *Cavē existimēs, beware of supposing;* C. Fam. 9, 24.

5. Verbs meaning *to determine, decide, etc.*, — *statuō, cōstituō, dēcernō*, etc., — generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (614):

Senātus dēcrēvit, darent operam cōsulēs, the senate decreed that the consuls should attend to it; S. C. 29, 2. *Rhēnum trānsire dēcrēverat, he had decided to cross the Rhine;* Caes. 4, 17.

6. Several other verbs of this class admit either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive, but generally with some difference of meaning:

Persuādēbō tibi ut manēās, I shall persuade you to remain. Persuādēbō tibi hōc vērū esse, I shall convince you that this is true. Moneō ut manēās, I advise you to remain. Moneō tē hōc vērū esse, I remind you that this is true.

566. Verbs meaning *to Make, Obtain, Hinder, and the like*, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Fac ut tē ipsum cūstodiās, make sure that you protect yourself; C. Fam. 9, 14, 8. *Effēcit ut imperātor mitterētur, he caused a commander to be sent. Nē mihi nocuant, vestrum est prōvidēre, it is your duty to see to it that they may not injure me;* C. C. 8, 12. *Dī prohibeant ut hōc praesidium existimēt, the gods forbid that this should be regarded as a defense;* C. Rose. A. 52, 151.

1. **Ut** with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with *faciō* and *agō*, rarely with *est*, a circumlocution:

Invītus faciō ut recorder, I unwillingly recall (I do unwillingly that I recall); C. Val. 9, 21. *Invītus fēcī ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem, I reluctantly expelled Flaminius from the senate;* C. Sen. 12, 42.

2. Some verbs of this class which generally take the Subjunctive, admit the Infinitive, with or without a Subject, but with a somewhat different meaning:

Cūrā ut valeās, take care to be in good health; C. Att. 11, 8. *Nihil quod tē putem scire cūrāre, nothing which I think you would care to know;* C. Fam. 9, 10.

567. Verbs meaning *to Fear* generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Timeō ut labōrēs sustineās, I fear that you will not endure the labors; C. Fam. 14, 2. *Timeō nē eveniant ea, I fear that those things may happen;* cf. C. Fam. 6, 21.

SYNTAX

1. The following examples show the process by which a Subjunctive clause becomes dependent upon a verb of Fearing. They also show why **ut** must be rendered *that not*, and **nē** *that or lest*:

Timeō ; nē eveniant ea, *I fear ; may those things not happen.*

Timeō nē eveniant ea, *I fear that, or lest, those things may happen* = I fear, may they not happen ; negative desire, hence **nē**.

Timeō ; veniant ea, *I fear ; may those things happen.*

Timeō ut veniant ea, *I fear that those things may not happen* = I fear, may those things happen ; affirmative desire, hence **ut**.

2. After verbs of Fearing, **nē nōn** is sometimes used in the sense of **ut**, regularly so after a negative clause:

Nōn vereor nē hōc iūdicī nōn probem, *I do not fear that I may not make this acceptable to the judge* ; C. Ver. 4, 88, 82.

3. Verbs of Fearing admit the Infinitive as in English:

Vereor laudāre praesentem, *I fear (hesitate) to praise you in your presence.*

4. Various expressions, nearly or quite equivalent to verbs of Fearing, are also followed by the Subjunctive; as, **timor est** ; **metus**, **cūra**, **periculum est** ; **periculōsum est** ; **anxius**, **pavidus sum** ; in **metū**, in **periculō sum** ; **cūra**, **timor incēdit** ; **pavor capit**, etc.:

Num est periculum nē quis putet turpe esse, *is there any fear that any one may think it to be disgraceful* ? Orat. 42, 145. Pavor cēperat militēs nē mortiferum esset vulnus, *fear that the wound might be mortal had seized the soldiers.* Nē quod bellum oriretur, anxius erat, *he was fearful that some war might arise.* Sunt in metū, nē afficiantur poenā, *they are in fear that they may be visited with punishment* ; C. Fin. 2, 16, 53.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE—FINAL CLAUSES

568. Rule.—The Subjunctive is used with **ut**, **nē**, **quō**, **quōd minus**, **quōdminus**, to denote the Purpose of the action:

Rōmānī ab arātrō abduxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset, *the Romans took Cincinnatus from the plow that he might be dictator* ; C. Fin. 2, 4, 12. Lēgibus idcirco servimus ut liberī esse possimus, *we are servants of the laws for this reason, that we may be able to be free* ; C. Clu. 53, 146. Claudī cūriam iubet, nē quis egredi possit, *he orders the senate house to be closed that no one may be able to come out.* Medicō aliquid dandum est, quō sit studiōsior, *something ought to be given to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive.* Neque tē dēterreō quō minus

id disputēs, and I am not trying to deter you from discussing (that you may less discuss) that point; C. Att. 11, 8, 1.

1. The following examples show the process by which the Volitive Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Independent Volitive. — Nē quid rēs publica dētrimentū capiat,¹ *let the republic suffer no harm.*

Dependent Volitive = Purpose. — Dent operam cōsulēs nē quid rēs publica dētrimentū capiat,¹ *let the consuls give heed that (in order that) the republic may suffer no harm.*

Independent. — Vincat,¹ *let him conquer.* Contendit; vincat, *he is striving; let him conquer.* •

Dependent. — Contendit ut vincat,¹ *he strives that he may conquer.*

2. **Object Clauses and Final Clauses.** — (Object clauses and Final clauses, as they are both developed from the Volitive Subjunctive, are sometimes difficult to distinguish. An Object clause, however, is always the grammatical object of a verb, while a Final clause is never thus used.

3. Conjunctions introducing Final clauses sometimes have correlatives in the Principal clause, as *idēō*, *idcirco*, *eō*, etc., as in the second example.

4. Subjunctive clauses with *ut* or *ne* are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amicōs parāre, optimam vitae, ut ita dicam, spūlectilem, *to secure friends, the best treasure, so to speak, of life; C. Am. 15.*

5. A clause of purpose may take *ut nōn* when the negative belongs, not to the entire clause, but to some particular word:

Suās cōpiās prōdūxit, ut, si vellet Ariovistus, etc., ei potestās nōn deesset (non deesset = adesset), *he led out his forces that, if Ariovistus wished, etc., he might not lack the opportunity; Caes. 1, 48, 3.* Ut plūra nōn dicam, *not to say more, or to say no more; C. Man. 15, 44.*

6. The negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, whether Substantive or Final, is regularly *nēve*, or *neu*, but sometimes *neque*:

Lēgem tulit, nē quis accūsārētur, nēve multārētur, *he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished; N. 5, 3.* Nunc ut ea praetermittam, neque eōs appellem, quid lucrī fiat cōgnōscite, *now, to omit those things, and not to call upon those persons, learn what the profit is; C. Ver. 3, 48, 115.*

¹ Observe that the negative clause *nē quid . . . capiat* becomes negative Purpose without any change whatever, and that the affirmative *vincat* becomes affirmative Purpose without change, though *ut* is used to connect it with *contendit*.

SYNTAX

7. **Quō**, by which, that, sometimes introduces Final Clauses, chiefly with comparatives, as in the fourth example. **Quō minus** is simply **quō** with the comparative **minus**.

8. **Quō minus**, by which the less, that thus the less, that not, is generally used with verbs of Hindering, Opposing, Refusing, — **dēterreō**, **impediō**, **obstō**, **prohibeō**, **recūsō**, etc., — and it always takes the Subjunctive. It originally denoted Purpose, but it often introduces Substantive Clauses :

Nōn recūsāvit quō minus poenam subiret, *he did not refuse to submit* (that he might not submit) *to punishment*; N. 15, 8. **Nōn dēterret sapientem mors, quō minus rei publicae cōsulat**, *death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic*; C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91. **Per eum stetit, quō minus dimicārētur**, *it was due to his influence* (stood through him) *that the battle was not fought*; Caes. C. 1, 41, 3.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

569. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real :

Nēmō est qui nōn liberōs suōs beatōs esse cupiat, *there is no one who would not wish his children to be happy*; C. Inv. 1, 30, 48. **Quoniam civitatī cōsulare nōn possent**, *since they would not be able to consult for the state*. **Ubi periculum faciās**, *whenever you (any one) may make the trial*; Pl. Bac. 63.

1. A clause containing a Potential Subjunctive, when made dependent, often becomes an Adverbial clause denoting the Result of the action :

Ita vixit ut offenderet nēmīnem, *he so lived that he would offend no one, or that he offended no one*; C. Plane 16, 41.

2. The following example shows the process by which the Potential Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Result :

Independent Potential. — **Probitātem in hoste etiam diligāmus**, *we should love goodness even in an enemy*.

Dependent Potential = Result. — **Tanta vis probitātis est ut eam in hoste etiam diligāmus**, *so great is the power of goodness that we should love it even in an enemy, or that we love it even in an enemy*.

NOTE. — The strict meaning of the Potential Subjunctive **diligāmus** is precisely the same both in the Independent and in the Dependent form, viz.

we should love; but from this primary meaning was developed by way of inference a secondary meaning, *we love*, as we very naturally assume that what one *would love* as a matter of course, one may love as a matter of fact.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT— CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES

570. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used with **ut**, or **ut nōn**, to denote the Result of the action:

Tāle est ut possit iūre laudārī, it is such that it may be justly praised; C. Fl. 2, 14. *Tanta tempestās coorta est, ut nūlla navis cursum tenēre posset, so great a tempest arose that no vessel would be able, or was able, to hold its course*; Caes. 4, 28. *Et mō adeō tenuis est, ut non mīlescere possit, no one is so fierce that he may not become gentle*; H. E. 1, 1, 39. *Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset carissimus, Atticus so lived that he was (would be) very dear to the Athenians*; N. 25, 2.

1. The Potential Subjunctive occurs with **quam**, with or without **ut**:

Indulgēbat sibi liberalis, quam ut invidiam posset effugere, he indulged himself too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able) to escape unpopularity; N. 12, 3. *Impōnēbat amplius quam terre possent, he imposed more than they would be able, or were able, to bear*; C. Ver. 4, 34, 76.

2. After **tantum abest ut**, denoting Result, a second **ut**-clause of Result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised that it is even censured; C. Tusc. 5, 2, 6.

3. **Ita . . . ut nōn** introduces the Subjunctive of Result, but **ita . . . ut nē**, so that not, on condition that not, introduces the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Singulis cōsulātur, sed ita ut ea rēs nē obsit rei pūblicae, let the interests of individuals be consulted, but only on condition that this does not harm the republic; C. Off. 2, 21, 72.

4. **Nē** with the Subjunctive, denoting the wish or purpose of the writer, is sometimes found in clauses of Result:

Ex quō efficitur, nōn ut voluptās nē sit voluptās, sed ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows, not (I wish you to understand) that pleasure is not pleasure, but that pleasure is not the highest good; C. Fl. 2, 8, 24.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

571. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is often used with *ut* and *ut nōn* in Substantive Clauses¹ as follows :

1. In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning *it happens, it follows, etc.*, — *accidit, accēdit, ēvenit, fit, efficitur, fieri potest, fore, sequitur, etc.* :

Potest fieri ut fallar, it may be that I am deceived; C. Fam. 13, 73, 2. *Fit ut quisque dēlectētur, the result is (it comes to pass) that every one is delighted.* *Accidit ut esset lūna plēna, it happened that the moon was full.* *Ad senectūtem accēdebat ut caecus esset, to age was added the fact that he was blind*; C. Sen. 6, 16. *Evēnit ut rūri essēmus, it happened that we were in the country.* *Spērō fore ut contingat id nobīs, I hope that this will fall to our lot*; C. Tusc. 1, 34.

2. In Subject clauses with predicate nouns and adjectives :

Mōs est ut nōlint, it is their custom to be unwilling; C. Brut. 21, 64. *Fuit meum officium ut facerem, it was my duty to do it.* *Vērū est ut bonōs boni diligant, it is true that the good love the good.* *Quid tam incrēdibile quam ut eques Rōmānus triumphāret, what so incredible as that a Roman knight should triumph?* C. Man. 21, 62.

3. In Object clauses depending upon *faciō, efficiō, etc.*, of the action of irrational forces :

Sōl efficit, ut omnia flōreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (that all things may bloom); C. N. D. 2, 15, 41. *Splendor vester facit ut peccāre sine periculō nōn possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you cannot err without peril*; C. Ver. 1, 8, 22.

4. In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns :

Est hōc vitium ut invidia glōriæ comes est, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory; N. 12, 3. *Id est proprium civitatīs ut sit libera,*

¹ The Subjunctive, in some of these substantive clauses, was developed directly from the independent Potential Subjunctive, as in the first example: independent, *potest fieri; fallar, it may be; I may be deceived*; dependent, *potest fieri ut fallar, it may be that I am deceived.* In some other examples, it was developed through the clause of result, as in the second example. If this is interpreted to mean, *it is done in such a way that every one is delighted*, then *ut . . . dēlectētur* is a clause of result, but, if it is interpreted as in the text, it becomes a substantive clause. In some instances, however, substantive clauses, apparently with the Potential Subjunctive, have not been developed in either of these two ways, but formed by analogy, after the general type of substantive clauses.

it is characteristic of a state to be free. Sōli hōc contingit sapienti ut nihil faciat invitus, this happens only to the wise man, that he does nothing unwillingly; C. Parad. 6, 1, 84.

MOODS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.—INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE

572. Every Conditional Sentence consists of two distinct parts expressed or understood, the Condition or Protasis, and the Conclusion or Apodosis:

Si negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.

Here **si negem** is the condition or protasis and **mentiar**, the conclusion or apodosis.

573. Conditional sentences naturally arrange themselves in three distinct classes with well-defined forms and meanings, as follows:

Class I.—Indicative in both clauses; Condition assumed as Real:

Negat quis, negō, some one denies (= if some one), I deny; T. Eun. 251. Si quis negat, negō, if some one denies, I deny.

Class II.—Subjunctive, Present or Perfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Possible:

Rogēs mē, nihil fortasse respondeam., ask me, I may perhaps make no reply; C. N. D. 1, 21, 57. Si rogēs mē, nihil fortasse respondeam, if you should ask me, I should perhaps make no reply.

Class III.—Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Contrary to Fact:

Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted; V. 6, 30. Tū māgnam partem, si sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, if grief had permitted.

NOTE.—From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle, as **si**, *if*, although regularly used, is not an essential part of a conditional sentence, and that it originally had no influence upon the mood in either clause, as the mood in each of these examples without **si** is the same as in the corresponding example with **si**. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent of each other, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in independent sentences; see 523, 551.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — CLASS I

Indicative in Both Clauses

574. Rule. — The Indicative in Conditional Sentences with **si**, **nisi**, **nī**, **sin**, assumes the supposed case as Real :

Si haec civitas est, civis sum, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Si vincimus, omnia nobis tuta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe for us. Plura scribam, si plus otii habuerō, I shall write more if I shall have (had) more leisure. Si feceris id, magnam habebō grātiā; si nōn feceris, ignoscā, if you will do this, I shall have great gratitude; if you do not do it (shall not have done it), I shall pardon you; C. Fam. 5, 19. Si licuit, pecūniā rectē abstulit filius, if it was lawful, the son took the money rightfully. Sin certē eveniet, nūlla fortūna est, but if it will surely happen, there is no uncertainty whatever; C. Div. 2, 7, 18. Mirum, nī domist (= domi est), strange if he is not at home; T. And. 598.

1. **Force of the Indicative in Conditional Clauses.** — The Indicative in conditional clauses assumes the supposed case as a fact, but it does not necessarily imply that the supposition is in accord with the Actual Fact, although it is often used when such is the case, especially with **si quidem**, which often means *since* :

Antiquissimum est genus poctarum, si quidem ¹ *Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since (if indeed) Homer lived before the founding of Rome; cf. Tusc. 1, 1, 3.*

2. The Time may be Present, Past, or Future, and it is often the same in both clauses, but various combinations of tenses occur; see **examples**.

3. The use of the Future Perfect in both clauses illustrates the fondness of the Latin for the forms for completed action :

Is bellum confecerit qui Antōnium opprēsserit, he who shall crush Antony, will bring this war to a close; C. Fam. 11, 12.

4. In general the Latin language makes no distinction between Particular and General Conditions; but see **578**.

Force of Conditional Particles

575. The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by **si** or **sin**, with or without other particles, as **si quidem**, **si modo**, **sin autem**; when negative, by **nisi**, **nī**, **si nōn** :

¹ **Si quidem**, lit. if indeed, if as it is admitted = *since*.

Si haec civitas est, civis sum; **si** nōn, exsul sum, *if this is a state, I am a citizen; if not, I am an exile*; cf. C. Fam. 7, 3, 5.

1. The force of **si**, probably a Locative case, is more clearly seen when it is used as the correlative of **sic** and **ita**, *so, thus*, as in the following examples:

Sic scribēs aliquid, **si** vacābis, *so or if you shall have leisure, so you will write something*; C. Att. 12, 88. *Ita* senectūs honesta est, **si** iūs retinet, *so or if old age retains its right, so it is honorable*; C. Sen. 11, 3.

NOTE. — **Sic** is a compound of **si** and **ce**, seen in **hi-ce**; **sic** = **si-ce**. **Si . . . sic** means *so . . . so*. Compare the corresponding use of *so* in English: "So truth be in the field, we do injuriously to misdoubt her strength" (Milton).

2. **Nisi** and **si nōn** are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly **nisi**, *if not*, with the emphasis on *if*, means *unless*, and introduces a negative condition, a qualification or an exception, while **si nōn**, *if not*, with the emphasis on *not*, limits the negative to some particular word:

Parvi foris sunt arma, **nisi** est cōsiliū domi, *arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home*; cf. C. Or. 1, 22, 76. **Si** tibi nōn gravēs sumus, refer ad illa tē, *if we are not troublesome to you, recur to those topics*; C. Or. 3, 36, 147. Here observe that **nōn** belongs to **gravēs**.

3. **Si nōn**, from the nature of its meaning with its emphatic **nōn**, is used chiefly in contrasts:

Si illud nōn licet, saltem hōc licēbit, *if that is not lawful, this surely will be*; T. Eun. 639.

4. **Si minus**, **sīn minus**, **sīn aliter**, are sometimes used in the sense of **si nōn**, especially when the verb is omitted:

Si minus potentem, at probātam tamen et iūstam, *if not powerful, at least approved and just*; C. Fam. 2, 6, 3. **Sīn** minus poterit, negābit, *but if he shall not be able, he will deny*; C. Inv. 2, 29, 88.

5. **Sīn** and **sīn autem**, *but if*, are generally used in contrasting clauses, whether affirmative or negative:

Si statim nāvigās . . . ; **sīn** tē cōfirmāre vis, *if you sail at once . . . ; but if you wish to recover your health*; C. Fam. 16, 1.

6. **Nisi** or **nī**, generally *if not*, *unless*, is sometimes best rendered *but* or *except*:

Nesciō, **nisi** hōc videō, *I know not, but I observe this*; C. Rose. A. 85, 99.

7. **Nisi si** means *except if*, *unless perhaps*, *unless*:

Nisi si quis ad mē scripsit, *unless perhaps some one has written to me*; C. Fam. 14, 2.

8. The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with *nisi forte* and *nisi vērō* :

Nisi forte id dubium est, unless perchance this is doubtful ; C. Ver. 1, 39, 100.

9. A condition is sometimes implied in a participle, in an ablative absolute, or even in the oblique case of a noun :

Nōn potestis, voluptāte omnia dērigentēs, retinēre virtutēm, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure ; C. Fin. 2, 22, 71. *Rēctō factō, exigua laus prōpōnitur, if the work is well done, small praise is offered* ; C. Agr. 2, 2, 5. *Nēmō sine spē sē offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (= if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death* ; C. Tusc. 1, 15, 32.

10. For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 646.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.—CLASS II

Subjunctive, Present or Perfect in Both Clauses

576. Rule.—The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with *sī, nisi, nī, sīn*, assumes the supposed case as Possible :

Dies dēficiat, sī velim causam dēfendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause ; C. Tusc. 5, 35, 102. *Haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōne impetrāre debeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request?* C. C. 1, 8. *Sī quid tē fūgerit, ego perierim, if anything should escape you, I should be ruined* ; T. Heaut. 816.

1. The time denoted by these tenses, the Present and the Perfect, is either Present or Future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its progress, the latter in its completion ; but the Perfect is rare, especially in the conclusion.

2. In early Latin the Present Subjunctive is often used in conditions contrary to fact :

Magis id dicās, sī sciās quod ego sciō, you would say this the more, if you knew what I know ; Pl. Miu. 1429. *Tū sī hīc sīs, aliter sentiās, if you were in my place, you would think differently* ; T. And. 810.

Present Subjunctive in Conditional Clauses

577. Conditional Sentences with the Present Subjunctive in the condition exhibit the three following varieties :

1. The first variety has the Present Subjunctive in both clauses. This is the regular form in Plautus, and the prevailing form in classical Latin :

Quod facile patiar, si tuò commodò fieri possit, which I can easily bear, if it can be for your advantage; C. Att. 2, 17, 8.

2. The second variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Present Indicative in the Conclusion. This form, somewhat rare in Plautus, became the prevailing form in the rhetorical works of Cicero, and finally the regular form in Tacitus and other late writers. These changes illustrate the gradual extension in principal clauses of the Indicative in constructions once occupied by the Potential Subjunctive:

Si accūsētur, nōn habet dēfēnsiōnem, if he should be accused, he has no defense; C. Inv. 1, 18, 18. Intrāre, si possim, castra hostium volō, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I may be able.

3. The third variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Future Indicative in the Conclusion. This combination is readily explained from the close relationship between the Present Subjunctive and the Future Indicative, both in etymology and in meaning, but it was not a favorite form in the classical period:

Nec, si cupiās, licēbit, nor if you should desire it, will it be allowed; C. Ver. 2, 69, 167.

578. General Conditions. — Conditional sentences which contain General Truths or Repeated Actions usually take the following forms:

1. Any required tense of the Indicative in the condition with the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the conclusion:

Parvī foris sunt arma, nisi est cōsiliū domi, arms are of little value abroad unless there is wisdom at home; C. Off. 1, 22, 76. Si quod erat grande vās inventum, laeti adferēbant, if any large vessel had been found, they gladly brought it to him; C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, generally in the second person used of an indefinite *you = one, any one*, in the condition, with the Present Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceās, the memory is impaired if you do not (if one does not) exercise it; C. Sen. 7, 21. Nulla est excūsatiō peccāti, si amīci causā peccāveris, it is no excuse for a fault, that (if) you may have committed it for the sake of a friend; C. Am. 11, 37.

NOTE 1. — In Livy and late writers the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are sometimes used. Solitary examples also occur in Cicero and Caesar:

Si apud principēs haud satis prōspere esset pugnātum, referēbantur, if among the principes the battle had not been sufficiently successful, they were led back; L. 8, 8, 11.

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NOTE 2. — Observe that all the Indicative forms given in this section for General Conditions are also used in Particular Conditions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — CLASS III

Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect in Both Clauses

579. Rule. — The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with *sī*, *nisi*, *nī*, *sīn*, assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact :

Sapientia nōn expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is) if it accomplished nothing; C. Fin. 1, 13, 42. Sī optima tenēre possēmus, haud sūcē cōsiliō egērēmus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed require counsel. Sī voluisset, propius Tiberi dimicāset, if he had wished, he would have fought nearer the Tiber. Numquam abisset, nisi sibi viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way; C. Tusc. 1, 14, 32.

1. Here the Imperfect generally relates to Present time and the Pluperfect to Past time, as in the examples; but sometimes the Imperfect retains its original signification as a past tense of continued action,¹ especially when it is accompanied by a word denoting past time :

Neque tantum laudis Nestori tribuisset Homērus, nisi tum esset honōs eloquentiae, Homer would not have awarded so great praise to Nestor, if there were then no honor for eloquence; C. Brut. 10, 40.

DEVIATIONS FROM THE REGULAR FORMS OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

580. Certain deviations from the regular form of the conclusion are admissible from the following facts :

1. The conclusion is often an independent clause, especially in the first class of conditional sentences, and as such it may take any form

¹ The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive alike seem to have been capable originally of representing a condition either as Possible or as Impossible, but by a shifting of tenses which began before the time of Plautus, the Imperfect gradually assumed the latter function for present time, thus relinquishing, in conditional sentences, its original force as a past tense, though traces of this original meaning are seen even in the classical period. Moreover, the use of the Present Subjunctive in early Latin in conditions contrary to fact is only an illustration of its original use.

admissible in such clauses, as that of a Statement, a Wish, or a Command.

2. Certain equivalent expressions may be substituted for the regular Subjunctive.

581. The Indicative in the Condition may be accompanied by the Imperative or Subjunctive in the Conclusion, regarded as an Independent Clause :

Si quid peccāvi, Ignōsce, *if I have done anything wrong, pardon me*; C. Att. 3, 15, 4. Quid timeam, si beātus futūrus sum, *what should I fear, if I am going to be happy?* Si quid habēs certius, velim scire, *if you have any tidings, I should like to know it*; C. Att. 1, 10.

1. The Subjunctive in the condition may be accompanied by the Indicative in the conclusion to emphasize a fact especially with a condition introduced by **nisi**, or **nī** :

Certāmen aderat, nī Fabius rem expedisset, *a contest was at hand, but Fabius (if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair*; L. 3, 1. Nec vēni, nisi fāta locum dedissent, *and I should not have come, if the fates had not assigned the place*; V. 11, 112.

582. The Indicative of the Periphrastic Conjugations, denoting that the action is About to take place or Ought to take place, has almost the same meaning as the ordinary Subjunctive forms of the same verb. Accordingly periphrastic forms in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative (**525, 1**) :

Quid, si hostēs veniant, factūri estis, *what will you do, if the enemy should come?* L. 3, 52. Si quaerātur, iūdicandum est, *if inquiry should be made, a decision must be given*; C. Top. 23, 57. Relictūri agrōs erant, nisi litterās misisset, *they would have left (were about to leave, but did not) their lands, if he had not sent a letter*. Si vērum respondēre vellēs, haec erant dicenda,¹ *if you had wished to answer truly, this should have been said*.

1. The close relationship in meaning between the periphrastic forms in **fūrus sum** and the ordinary Subjunctive forms is illustrated by the following examples :

Quae Caesar numquam fēcisset, ea nunc prōferuntur, *those things which Caesar would never have done are now reported as his*; C. Att. 14, 13, 6. Quae

¹ Observe that the Indicative of this Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, *this should have been said*, has precisely the same force as the Subjunctive in such sentences as the following :

Mortem pūgnāns oppetissēs, *you should have met death in battle*; C. Sest. 20, 45.

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ille factūrus nōn fuit, ea fiunt, those things which he would not have done (was not about to do) are now done; C. Att. 14, 14, 2.

2. When the Perfect or Imperfect of the Periphrastic Indicative in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the Perfect is generally used irrespective of the tense of the principal verb :

Adeō inopiā est coactus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetitūrus fuerit,¹ he was so pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul; L. 22, 32.

583. The Historical tenses of verbs denoting Ability, as *possum*, and of those denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, as *dēbeō* and the like, are often in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences, on account of their close relationship in meaning to the Subjunctive (525, 1) :

Dēlērī exercitus potuit, sī persecūtī victōrēs essent, the army might have been destroyed if the victors had pursued; L. 32, 12. Quem, sī illa in tē pietās esset, colere dēbēbās, whom you ought to have honored, if there was any filial affection in you; C. Ph. 2, 38, 99. Quae sī dubia essent, tamen omnēs bonōs rei publicae subvenire decēbat, even if these things were doubtful, still it would behoove all good men to aid the republic; S. 85, 48.

1. But these verbs often take the Subjunctive in accordance with the general rule, especially in Cicero :

Quid facere potuissem, nisi tum cōsul fuisset, what should I have been able to accomplish, if I had not then been consul? C. R. P. 1, 6, 10.

2. The Perfect Tense in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is regularly in the Indicative when accompanied by *paene* or *prope* (538, 6) :

Pōns iter paene hostibus dedit, nī finis vir fuisset, the bridge would have furnished (almost furnished) a passage to the enemy, had there not been one man; L. 2, 10.

3. The historical tenses of the verb *esse* with predicate adjectives (as *aequius, melius, rēctius, satius; iūstum, rēctum, pār*, etc.) are generally in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 525, 2 :

Si ita putāset, optābilius Milōnī fuit dare iugulum Clōdiō, if he had so thought, it would have been preferable for Milo to offer his neck to Clodius; C. Mil. 11, 81.

¹ Here *repetitūrus fuerit* is the Subjunctive of Result; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

4. In a few other cases also, a conclusion of one form of the conditional sentence is sometimes combined with a condition of a different form :

Si tibi umquam sum visus fortis, certē mē in illā causā admirātus essēs, if I have ever seemed to you to be brave, you would certainly have admired me in that trial ; C. Att. 1, 16. Id neque, si fātum fuerat, effūgisset, nor would he have escaped this if it had been fated ; C. Div. 2. 8. 20.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

584. Rule. — Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by *ac si*, *ut si*, *quam si*, *quasi*, *tamquam*, *tamquam si*, *velut*, *velut si*, *as if*, *than if*, take the Subjunctive :

Tū similiter facis, ac si mē rogēs, you are doing nearly the same thing, as if you should ask me ; C. N. D. 3, 3, 8. In eādē sunt iniūstitiā, ut si in suam rem aliēna convertant, they are involved in the same injustice, as if they should appropriate another's possessions to their own use ; C. Or. 1, 14, 42. Tam tē diligit quam si vixerit tēcum, he loves you as much as if he had lived with you ; C. Fam. 16, 5, 1. Quasi nihil umquam audierim, as if I had never heard anything. Sic iacent, tamquam sine animō sint, they lie as if they were without mind. Crūdēlitatē, velut si adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered at his cruelty, as if he were present ; cf. Caes. 1, 82.

1. In all these sentences the principal clause is entirely independent of the conditional clause.

2. In the conditional clause the Present or Imperfect is used for Present time, and the Perfect or Pluperfect for Past time.

3. The Present and Perfect may be used in conditions contrary to fact — a survival of the ancient usage as seen in Plautus and Terence.

4. *Ceu* and *sicuti* are sometimes used like *ac si*, *ut si*, etc. :

Ceu cētera nūquam bella forent, as if they were nowhere any other battles ; V. 2, 485. Sicuti audiri possent, as if they could be heard ; S. 60, 4.

5. Clauses of Comparison, which are not conditional, are treated as Independent clauses. They are generally introduced by such correlatives as *ita* or *sic* . . . *ut*, *thus* or *so* . . . *as* ; *tam* . . . *quam*, *so* or *as* . . . *as* ; *tālis* . . . *quālis*, *such* . . . *as* ; *tantus* . . . *quantus*, *so great* . . . *as* :

Ut sementem feceris, ita metēs, as you sow, so shall you reap, C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Nihil est tam populāre quam bonitās, nothing is so popular as goodness. Tam diū requiescō quam diū ad tē scribō, I am comforted so long as I am writing to you ; C. Att. 9, 4, 1. Tālem amicum volunt, quāles ipsi esse nōn possunt, they wish their friend to be such as they themselves can not be.

CONDITIONAL ADVERSATIVE CLAUSES

585. Rule. — **Etsi** and **etiam si**, when they mean *although*, introduce Adversative clauses and take the Indicative, but when they mean *even if* they introduce Conditional clauses, and accordingly take the same construction as **si** :

Etsi ab hoste ea dicēbantur, tamen nōn neglegenda existimābant, although this was said by the enemy, still they did not think that it should be disregarded ; Caes. 5, 28. Etiam si multi mēcum contendēt, tamen omnēs superābō, although many will enter the contest with me, yet I shall surpass them all ; C. Fam. 5, 6, 4.

Stultitia, etsi adepta est quod concupivit, nunquam sē satis cōsecūtā putat, folly, even if it has obtained what it desired, never thinks that it has obtained enough. Etiam si oppetenda mors esset, domi māllem, even if death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home ; C. Fam. 4, 7, 4.

1. An Adversative clause may represent the action as possible rather than actual, and thus may take the Potential Subjunctive :

Etsi nihil habeat in sē glōria, tamen virtutem sequitur, although glory may have nothing in itself, yet it follows virtue ; C. Tusc. 1, 45, 109.

2. Clauses with **etsi** and **etiam si** form a connecting link between Conditional clauses on the one hand and Concessive clauses on the other, as they partake of the characteristics of both.

3. For **etsi**, and *yet*, introducing an independent clause, see **586, 4.**

MOODS IN ADVERSATIVE AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

586. Rule. — I. Clauses introduced by **quamquam** and **tametsi** contain admitted facts, and accordingly take the Indicative :

Quamquam excellēbat abstinentiā, tamen exiliō multatus est, although he was distinguished for integrity, yet he was punished with exile ; N. 3, 1. Quamquam festinās, nōn est mora longa, although you are in haste, the delay is not long. Tametsi ab duce dēserēbantur, tamen spem salūtis in virtute pōnēbant, although they were deserted by their leader, they still placed their hope of safety in their valor ; Caes. 5, 34.

1. But clauses with **quamquam** and **tametsi** admit the Potential Subjunctive when the thought requires that mood (**569**) :

Quamquam alii dicant, although others may say ; C. Fin. 3, 21, 70.

2. In poetry and late prose, **quamquam** often takes the Subjunctive, regularly in Juvenal and generally in Tacitus :

Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age ; Tac. A. 3, 55.

II. Clauses introduced by **licet**, **quamvis**, **ut**, or **nē** are Concessive, and accordingly take the Concessive Subjunctive (559, 3).

Licet irideat, plus apud mē tamen ratio valēbit, although he may deride, yet reason will avail more with me ; C. Parad. 1, 1, 8. Nōn tū possis, quamvis excellās, you would not be able, although you may be eminent. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, although the strength may fail (let strength fail), still the will is to be commended. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certū est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil ; C. Tusc. 2, 5, 14.

1. The Subjunctive after **licet** and **quamvis** is the Concessive Subjunctive. It was originally independent of these particles. Thus, **licet, irideat, it is allowed, let him deride ; quamvis excellās, be as eminent as you wish (quam-vis = quam, as, and vis, you wish).**

2. **Quamvis** takes the Subjunctive in the best prose ; generally also in Nepos and Livy, but in the poets and late writers it often admits the Indicative :

Erat dignitāte regiā, quamvis carēbat nōmine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name ; N. 1 2, 3. Pōlliō amat nostram, quamvis est rústica, Mūsam, Pollio loves my muse, although it is rustic ; V. E. 3, 84.

3. The Subjunctive with **ut** and **nē** in concessive clauses is practically an independent Concessive Subjunctive. Thus, **nē sit . . . dolor, let not pain be the greatest evil** (grant that it is not), an entirely independent clause ; so, too, **ut dēsint vīrēs, let strength fail, or grant that strength fails**, also an independent clause which has assumed **ut** as the affirmative to correspond to **nē** in the negative clause.

4. **Quamquam** and **etsi**, meaning *yet, but yet, and yet*, often introduce independent clauses :

Quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak ? Etsi cōsiliū rēctum esse sciō, and yet I know that the plan is right.

5. **Ut . . . sic, or ut . . . ita, though . . . yet** (as . . . so), involving comparison, rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive : *they*

Ut ā proeliis quietem habuerant, ita nōn cessāverant ab oporod socium (as) they had had rest from battles, yet (so) they had not ceased the companion

SYNTAX

6. **Quamvis**, meaning *as you wish, as much as you wish, however much*, may accompany **licet** with the Subjunctive :

Quamvis enumerēs multōs licet, though you may count up as many as you wish ; C. Leg. 3, 10, 24.

MOODS WITH **Dum, Modo, Dummodo**

587. Rule.—The Jussive Subjunctive is used with **dum, modo, modo ut**, and **dummodo**, meaning *if only, provided*, in conditional clauses of desire :

Dum rēs maneant, verba fingant, let them manufacture words, if only the facts remain. Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain if only industry continues ; C. Sen. 7, 22. Modo ut haec nobis loca tenēre liceat, if only it is permitted us to occupy these places. Dum nē tibi videar, nōn labōrō, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care ; C. Att. 8, 11, B. 3. Dummodo nē continuū sit, provided this be not continuous.

MOODS WITH **Quod, Quia, Quoniam, Quandō**¹

588. Rule.—Causal Clauses with **quod, quia, quoniam, quandō**, generally take

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority :

Dēlectātus sum tuis litteris, quod tē intellēxī iam posse ridēre, I have been delighted with your letter, because I have learned from it that now you can laugh ; C. Fam. 9, 20, 1. Quia nātūra mutārī nōn potest, because nature can not be changed. Quoniam supplicatiō dēcrēta est, celebrātōte illōs diēs, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Quandō pauperiem horrēs, since you shudder at poverty ; H. S. 2, 5, 9.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority²:

Aristidēs nōne expulsus est patriā, quod iustus esset, was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just ? C. Tusc. 5, 36, 105.

¹ **Quod** and **quia** are in origin relative pronouns. **Quoniam** = **quom iam**, *from now*.

1. Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time that fact as a reason or cause, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive only assign a reason. Thus *quod iustus esset* does not state that *Quamquam* *sist*, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment.

Reprehendis mē, quia dēfendam, you reprove me because (on the ground that) *I defend him*. **Quoniam civitatī cōsulare nōn possent, since they could not consult for the state.**

1. Sometimes by a special construction the Subjunctive of a verb of Saying or Thinking is used, while the verb which introduces the reason on another's authority is put in the Infinitive :

Diēs prōrogātur, quod tabulās obsignātās diceret (= obsignātae essent), the time is extended on the ground that the documents were signed, as he said; C. Ver. 1, 38, 98. **Lēgātīs accūsantibus, quod pecūniās cēpisse arguerent, as the ambassadors accused him on the ground that he had received moneys, as they claimed;** C. Fin. 17, 24

2. **Nōn quod, nōn quō, nōn quīn, nōn quia, also quam quod, etc.,** are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason, in distinction from the true reason .

Nōn quod suscēnsērem, sed quod supputēbat, not because I was angry, but because I was ashamed; C. Fam. 9, 1, 2. **Nōn quō habērem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write;** C. Att. 7, 15, 1. **Nōn quīn rēctum esset, sed quia, etc., not because it was not right, but because, etc.**

NOTE. — In such clauses the Indicative is sometimes used to call attention to the facts in the case :

Nōn quod multis dēbeō, sed quia, etc., not because I am indebted to many (as I really am), but because, etc.; C. Plane. 32, 78.

3. The **quod** clause was originally a substantive clause used as Appositive, Subject, or Object :

Hōc praestāmus feris quod colloquimur inter nōs, we are superior to the brutes in this that we converse together; C. Or. 1, 8, 32. **Praetereō quod hanc sibi domum dēlēgit, I pass over the fact that she chose for herself this home.** **Hīc accēdēbat quod exercitum lūxuriōsē habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury;** S. C. 11, 5.

NOTE. — Clauses with **quod** sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of discourse :

Quod mē Agamemnonem aemulāri putās, falleris, as to the fact that you think that I emulate Agamemnon, you are in error; N. 15, 5, 6.

4. From the Substantive clause was developed the Causal clause, as follows :

Propter hanc causam quod mē adiūvērunt, for this reason, that they aided me, or because they aided me; C. Ver. 3, 46, 109. **Dolēbam quod socium labōris amiseram, I was grieving over the fact that I had lost the companion**

of my labor, or because I had lost the companion of my labor. Tibi agō grātiās quod mē molestiā liberāsti, I thank you because you have freed me from annoyance; C. Fam. 18, 62.

NOTE. — Observe that in the first example the **quod** clause may be either an Appositive to **causam** or a Causal clause, that in the second it may be either the Direct object of **dolēbam** or a Causal clause, i.e. in these examples we see the Causal clause in the actual process of development, while in the third example we have a fully developed Causal clause. In the time of Plautus the Causal meaning of **quod** was just beginning to make its appearance, while that of **quia** was already fully developed.

5. **Quia** had the same development as **quod** :

Doleō quia dolēs, I grieve over the fact that you grieve, or because you grieve.

6. **Quoniam** and **quandō** were originally temporal particles meaning *when now, when*, and are so used in Plautus, but the causal meaning was early developed in both.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

589. Rule. — Clauses introduced by the relative **qui**, or by Relative Adverbs, **ubi**, **unde**, **quō**, etc., take

I. The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause :

Ego qui tē cōfirmō, ipse mē nōn possum, I who encourage you am not able to encourage myself; C. Fam. 14, 4, 5. Civitatēs propinquae his locis, ubi bellum gesserat, states near to those places where he had been carrying on war. Athēniēnsēs, unde lēgēs ortae putantur, the Athenians, from whom laws are supposed to have been derived. Cūmis, quō sē contulerat, at Cumae, to which he had betaken himself.

NOTE. — So especially with General Relatives :

Quisquis est, is est sapiēs, whoever he is, he is wise.

II. The Subjunctive in all other cases :

Missi sunt delēcti, qui Thermopylās occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession (that they might take possession) of Thermopylae; N. 2, 3, 1. Domum, ubi habitāret, lēgerat, he had selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it); C. Ph. 2, 25, 62. Quae tam firma civitas est, quae nōn odiis possit ēverti, what state is so firmly established that it cannot be ruined by dissensions?

590. The Volitive Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses, to denote Purpose, as in *ut* clauses (568):

Certumst (certum est) hominem conloqui, qui possim vidēri huic fortis, & mē ut absteineat manum. I am determined to address the man face to face, that I may appear to him brave, that he may keep his hands off from me; Pl. Amph. 389. Lēgātōs Rōmā, qui auxilium peterent, misere, they sent ambassadors to Rome to ask aid (that they might ask aid). Locum petit, unde hostem invadat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy; L. 4, 27, 8.

1. In the first example, observe that the Relative clause, **qui possim . . . fortis**, and the *ut* clause, are equivalent expressions of Purpose. In the Independent form, they would read: **possim vidēri huic fortis**, *let me be able to appear to him brave*; **& mē absteineat manum**, *let him keep his hands off from me*.

591. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses:

1. To characterize Indefinite or General antecedents, especially General Negatives:

Nēmō est orātor qui Dēmōsthenī sē similē vult esse, there is no orator who would be unwilling to be like Demosthenes; C. Opt. G. 2, 6. Quis est qui hōc dicere audeat, who is there who would dare to say this?

NOTE 1. — Observe that, in these relative clauses, the Subjunctive is purely Potential, and that it has precisely the same force as in the following independent sentence:

Quis hōc dicere audeat, who would dare to say this?

NOTE 2. — The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents, in poetry, especially in Plautus and Terence, and in late prose. Even in the best writers it is often used when the Fact is to be made prominent:

Sunt quōs inuat, there are those whom it delights; H. 1, 1, 3. Permulta sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said; C. Rose. A. 33, 94.

2. To denote the Natural Result of an Action or Quality:

Nōn is sum qui his dēlecter, I am not one who would be delighted with these things, or such a one as to be delighted; C. Harus. 9, 18. Nōn tū es quem nihil dēlectet, you are not one whom nothing would please. Neque quisquam fuit, ubi nostrum iūs obtinērēmus, there was no one with whom (where) we could obtain our right; C. Quinct. 9, 34.

3. In Restrictive clauses with **quod**, as **quod sciam**, *as far as I (may) know*; **quod meminerim**, *as far as I can remember*; **quod iuvat**, *as far as it may be of service, etc.:*

Nōn ego tē, quod sciam, umquam ante hunc diem vidī, as far as I know, I have never seen you before this day; Pl. Men. 500. *Ita homō, quod iuvet, cūriōsus, a man, painstaking, so far as it may be of service*; C. Fam. 3, 1, 1.

4. In clauses with **quod**, or with a relative particle, **cūr**, **quārē**, etc., in certain idiomatic expressions. Thus, after **est**, *there is reason*; **nōn est, nihil est**, *there is no reason*; **nūlla causa est**, *there is no reason*; **nōn habeo, nihil habeo**, *I have no reason*; **quid est**, *what reason is there?* etc.:

Est quod gaudeās, there is reason why you should rejoice (there is that as to which you may rejoice); Pl. Trin. 310. *Nihil habeo, quod accūsem senectūtem, I have no reason to complain of old age*; C. Sen. 5, 18. *Tibi causa nūlla est cūr vellis,¹ you have no reason why you should wish.*

5. After **ūnus**, **sōlus**, and the like:

Sapientia est ūna quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels (may dispel) *sadness*; C. Fin. 1, 13, 43. *Sōli centum erant qui creāri patrēs possent, there were only one hundred who could be made senators.*

6. After Comparatives with **quam**:

Damna maiōra sunt quam quae (ut ea) aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be estimated); L. 3, 72.

NOTE. — For the Infinitive after comparatives with **quam**, see 643, 2.

7. After **dignus**, **indignus**, **idōneus**, and **aptus**:

Hunc Caesar idōneum iudicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged him a suitable person to send (whom he might send); Caes. C. 3, 10, 2. *Fabulae dignae quae legantur, plays worth reading* (which may or should be read).

NOTE. — For the Infinitive with these words, see 608, 4, and note 1.

592. The Subjunctive, originally Potential, is used in Relative clauses to denote Cause or Reason:

O vis vērītatis, quae sē dēfendat, O the power of truth, that it (which) *can defend itself*; C. Am. 26, 63. *O fortunāte adulēscēns, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum praeconem invēneris, O fortunate youth, in having obtained* (who may have obtained) *Homer as the herald of your valor*; C. Arch. 10, 21. *Nec facillimē agnōscitur, quippe qui blandiātur, he is not very easily detected, as he is likely to flatter.* *Maritimae res, ut quae celerem mōtum habērent, maritime affairs, as they involve prompt movement* (as things which would have, etc.). *Nōn procul aberat, utpote qui sequeretur, he was not far away, as he was pursuing* (as one who might be pursuing); S. C. 37, 4.

¹ Observe that the mood in **cūr vellis** would be precisely the same in an independent sentence. It is Potential, not Deliberative.

1. **Quippe, ut, and utpote** sometimes accompany the relative in Causal clauses, as in the last three examples. They emphasize the causal relation.

2. In Plautus and Terence, causal clauses with **quī** and **quippe quī** admit either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. The latter mood emphasizes the causal relation and is used especially with **ut quī**:

Quem rogem, quī hic nēminem alium videam whom am I to ask, since I can see no other one here? Ut qui mē tibi esse cōservom velint, since they (as those who) would wish me to be your fellow-servant; Pl. Capt. 243.

3. Causal clauses with **quī** admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact rather than as a cause:

Habeō senectūtī grātiā, quae mihi sermōnis aviditātē auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation; C. Sen. 14, 46.

4. In Sallust **quippe quī** regularly takes the Indicative.

Quippe quī rēgnum animō iam invāserat, since in thought he had already seized the kingdom; S. 20, 6.

593. The Subjunctive, originally Jussive, is used

1. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Conditional clauses with the Subjunctive (573):

Haec qui (= si quis) videat, nōne cōgātur cōfiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc.? C. N. D. 2, 4, 12. Quī vidēret, urbem captam diceret, if any one saw it, he would say that the city was taken; C. Ver. 4, 23, 52.

2. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Concessive clauses with the Subjunctive (586, II.):

Absolvite eum, qui sē fateātur pecūniās cōpisse, acquit him, although he confesses (let him confess) that he has accepted money; C. Ver. 3, 95, 221. Ego met quī leviter Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēns sum commorātus, although I had pursued Greek studies only superficially, yet I remained in Athens several days; et. C. Or. 1, 18, 82.

MOODS WITH QUĪN

594. Rule. — I. **Quīn** in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences:

Quīn cōnsceudimus equōs, why do we not mount our horses? L. 1, 57, 7. Quīn tacēs, why are you not silent? Quin uno verbō dic, nay, say in a single word; T. And. 45.

II. **Quin** in subordinate clauses takes the Subjunctive:¹

Nec dubitārī dēbet, quin fuerint ante Homērum poētae, nor ought it to be doubted that there were poets before Homer; C. Brut. 18, 71. *Neque recūsāre, quin armis contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms.* *Nēmō est tam fortis, quin rei novitatē perturbētur, no one is so brave, as not to be disturbed by the suddenness of the event*; Caes. 6, 39, 3.

1. In number I., observe that the use of **quin** in commands is developed from its use in questions. Thus, **quin tacēs**, *why are you not silent?* implies a reproof which readily passes into a Command, as **quin tacē**, *nay, be silent.*

2. In number II., the **quin** clause in the first example is developed from the interrogative **quin** = **quī-ne**, meaning *why not?* **Quin . . . poētae**, *why may there not have been poets before Homer?* The mood is Potential. In the next example, **quin** is used in the sense of **quō minus** and thus introduces a clause of Purpose; see 568. In the last example, **quin** is equivalent to **quī nōn** and introduces a clause of Characteristic and accordingly takes the Potential Subjunctive.

595. **Quin** is used after Negatives and Interrogatives implying a Negative. Thus:

1. After negative expressions implying Doubt, Uncertainty, Distance, Omission, and the like, as **nōn dubitō**, **nōn dubium est**, **nihil abest**, **nihil** or **nōn praetermittō**, etc.:

Nōn dubitat quin sit Trōia peritūra, he does not doubt that Troy will fall; C. Sen. 10, 31. *Nōn erat dubium, quin plūrimum possent, there was no doubt that they had very great power*; Caes. 1, 3. *Nihil abest quin sim miserrimus, nothing is wanting to make me (that I should be) most unhappy.* *Nūllum intermisi diem, quin aliquid ad tē litterārum darem, I have allowed no day to pass without sending (but that I sent) a letter to you.*

2. After verbs of Hindering, Preventing, Refusing, and the like, to denote Purpose, like **quō minus** and **nē** after the same verbs:

Quin loquar haec, numquam mē potest dēterrere, you can never deter me from saying this; Pl. Amph. 559. *Retinērī nōn potuerant quin tela cōicerent, they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons*; Caes. 1, 47, 2.

3. After **facere nōn possum**, **fieri nōn potest**, etc., in Object and Subject clauses:

¹ **Quin** in subordinate clauses seems to represent two separate words: an interrogative **quin** = **quī ne**, *why not*, from which was developed a negative relative, meaning *by which not* = **quōminus**; and a relative **quin** = **quī nōn**, *quae nōn*, *quod nōn*, *who not*.

Facere nōn possum, quā cōtidiē litterās ad tē mittam, I cannot but send (cannot help sending) a letter to you daily; cf. C. Att. 12, 27. Efficī nōn potest quā eōs ōderim, it cannot be brought about that I should not hate them.

4. After *nēmō, nūllus, nihil, quis*, and the like, in the sense of *quī nōn, quae nōn, ut nōn* :

Nēmō est, quī mālīt, there is no one who would not prefer; cf. C. Fam. 6, 1, 1. Nēmō est quī audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Nūlla fuit civitās quī Caesarī pārēret, there was no state which was not subject to Caesar. Quis est quī cernat, who is there who does not (would not) perceive? C. Acad. 2, 7, 20.

5. After various verbs with *numquam* and in Interrogative clauses with *umquam* :

Numquam tam male est Siculīs, quā aliquid facētē dicant, it is never so bad with the Sicilians that they cannot say something witty; C. Ver. 4, 43, 95. Quis umquam templum illud adspexit quā avāritiae tuae testis esset, who ever looked upon that temple without being a witness of your avarice?

6. A pronoun, *is* or *id*, referring to the subject of the principal clause, is sometimes expressed after *quā* :

Quis vēnit quā is de avāritiā tuā commōvitur, who came without being reminded (but that he was reminded) of your avarice? C. Ver. 1, 59, 154.

596. Special Verbs. — Certain verbs which take *quā* with more or less frequency also admit other constructions. Thus :

1. *Nōn dubitō* admits either a *quā* clause or a dependent question :

Nōlīte dubitāre, quā huic crēdātis omnia, do not hesitate to intrust everything to him; C. Man. 23, 68. Nōn dubitō quid vobīs agendum putēs, I do not doubt what you think we ought to do; C. Att. 10, 1, 2.

2. A few verbs of Hindering and Opposing, especially *dēterreō* and *impediō*, take the Subjunctive with *nē, quā, or quō minus* :

Hīs multitūdinem dēterrere nē frūmentum cōferant, that these deter the multitude from bringing the grain together; Caes. 1, 17, 2. Quā loquar haec, numquam mē potēs dēterrere, you can never deter me from saying this. Nōn dēterret sapientem mors quō minus rei publicae cōsulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic; C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91.

CLAUSES WITH Cum

597. The particle *cum*, like the relative from which it is derived, is very extensively used in subordinate constructions, as in Causal, Concessive, and Temporal clauses.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH **Cum** IN CAUSAL AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

598. Rule. — In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive clauses with **cum** take the Subjunctive :

Cum vita sine amicis metus plēna sit, ratiō monet amicitias comparāre, since life without friends is (would be) full of fear, reason advises us to establish friendships ; C. Fin. 1, 20, 66. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Quippe cum eōs diligāmus, since in truth we love them ; C. Am. 8, 28. Utpote cum sine febrī labōrāssem, since indeed I had been without fever in my illness. Cum praesertim vōs alium miseritis, especially since you have sent another ; C. Man. 5, 12.

Phōciōn fuit pauper, cum divitissimus esse posset, Phocion was a poor man, although he might have been very rich ; cf. N. 19, 1, 2. Sōcratēs, cum facile posset ēdūci ē cūstodiā, nōluit, Socrates, though he could easily have escaped from prison, was unwilling to do so ; cf. C. Tusc. 1, 29, 71. Cum multa sint in philosophiā ūtilia, although there are many useful things in philosophy.

1. Observe that the causal relation is emphasized by the addition of **quippe** and **utpote** to **cum**, precisely as it is by the addition of these particles to **quī** ; see **592, 1. Praesertim** added to **cum**, as in the fifth example, has a similar force.

599. Indicative in Causal and Concessive Clauses with Cum. — The Indicative in Causal clauses with **cum** is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence ; and it is used in all writers when the statement is viewed as an actual fact, especially after **laudō**, **gaudeō**, **grātulor**, and the like :

Quom optumē fēcisti, since you have done excellently ; Pl. Capt. 423. Quom hōc nōn possum, since I have not this power. Cum dē tuis factis conqueruntur, since they complain of your deeds ; C. Ver. 2, 64, 155. Grātulor tibi, cum tantum valēs, I congratulate you on the fact that you have so great influence.

1. Concessive clauses with **cum** sometimes take the Indicative to emphasize the fact rather than the concession :

Cum tabulās emunt, tamen divitiās suās vincere nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable to exhaust their wealth ; S. C. 20, 12.

2. **Ut . . . sic** and **ut . . . ita**, though . . . yet (as . . . so), involving Comparison, rather than Concession, generally take the Indicative ;

Ut ā proeliis quīetē habuerant, ita nōn cessāverant ab opere, though (as) they had had rest from battles, yet (so) they had not ceased from work.

MOODS IN TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH Cum

600. Rule. — Temporal clauses with **cum**, meaning *when, while, after*, take

I. The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses :

Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere solēō, I am wont to read books when I have leisure ; C. Or. 2, 14, 59. Tum cum urbem condidit, at the time when he founded the city. Cum Caesar in Galliam. vēnit, when Caesar came into Gaul. Cum hominēs cupiditatibus imperābunt, when men shall govern their desires.

1. Cum Inversum. — Here belong clauses with **cum inversum**, i.e. with **cum** in the sense of **et tum**, *and then*. This is an inverted construction by which the leading thought is put in the Temporal clause which generally takes the Historical Present or Perfect, often with **repente**, **subitō**, or some similar word, while the Principal clause generally takes the Imperfect or Pluperfect with **vix**, **nōndum**, **iam**, etc. :

Vix ille hōc dixerat, cum iste prōnūtiat, etc., scarcely had he said this when (and then) that man proclaimed, etc. ; Ver 2, 38, 93. Diēs nōndum decem intercesserant, cum alter filius necātur, ten days had not yet intervened when (and then) the other son was put to death.

II. The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses :

Zēnōnem, cum Athēnis essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens ; C. N. D. 1, 21, 59. Cum dimicāret, occisus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain ; N. 21, 3, 2. Fuisti? saepe, cum Athēnis essēs, in scholis philosophōrum, you were often in the schools of the philosophers, when you were at Athens. Caesarī cum id nūntiatum esset, mātūrāt ab urbe proficiēsci, when this had been announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Cum tridui viam prōcessisset, nuntiatum est ei, etc., when he had gone a three days' journey, it was announced to him, etc.

1. It will be found on an examination of these and similar examples that temporal clauses introduced by **cum** with the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive name, or describe, the occasion on which the action of the principal verb is performed. Thus presence in Athens was the essential condition on which alone one could hear Zeno, and in the fourth example the announcement made to Caesar was the actual cause of his hasty departure from the city. These clauses therefore sustain a close relationship to causal clauses with **cum**, and probably take the Subjunctive after the analogy of these clauses. They are used chiefly in historical narration, in which the causal relation of events is often manifest.

2. The Subjunctive of the second person singular, used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *any one*, may be used in any tense :

Difficile est tacēre; cum doleās, it is difficult to be quiet when you are suffering; C. Sull. 10, 81. Cum quōsdam audirēs, when you heard certain persons; C. Brut. 85, 184.

601. Indicative.—The Indicative in the Imperfect and Pluperfect in Temporal clauses with **cum** is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence, but it is exceedingly rare¹ in the classical period. It is used, however, in temporal clauses, which logically are nearly or quite independent of the principal clause. Thus

1. After **cum** = **et tum**, as often in **cum interim**, **cum intereā**, *when in the meantime* = *and or but in the meantime*; **cum etiam tum**, *and even then*; **cum nōndum**, **hauddum**, *and not yet*:

Caedēbātur virgīs, cum intereā nūllus gemitus audiēbātur, he was beaten with rods, but in the meantime no groan was heard; C. Ver. 5, 62, 162. Multum diēi prōcesserat, cum etiam tum ēventus in incertō erat, a large part of the day had passed, and even then the result was uncertain.

2. After such correlative expressions as **tum . . . cum**, *then . . . when*, **eō** or **illō tempore** or **diē . . . cum**, *on that time or day . . . when*, and kindred expressions :

Senātus tum, cum florēbat imperium, dēcrēvit, the senate decreed at that time when its power was at its height; C. Div. 1, 41, 92. Eō tempore pārui, cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at that time when it was necessary to obey.

NOTE. — So in the dating of letters :

Cum haec scribēbam, spērābam,² when I wrote this, I hoped; C. Fam. 3, 18.

3. After **cum**, meaning *from the time when, since, during which*, in such expressions as the following :

Nōndum centum et decem annī sunt cum lāta est lēx, it is not yet a hundred and ten years since the law was proposed; C. Or. 2, 21, 75. Permulti annī iam erant, cum nūlla certāmina fuerant, it was already many years during which there had been no contests.

¹ Caesar, *Dē Bellō Galliē*, has about two hundred and forty instances of the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive in clauses with **cum**, and only one of the Imperfect Indicative, explained by 601, 2. and seven of the Pluperfect Indicative, explained by 601, 4. Nepos has upwards of three hundred Subjunctives in these clauses, and only four Indicatives in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses.

² Remember that the tense is here adapted to the time of the reader, while to the writer the time is present.

4. More commonly after **cum**, meaning *as often as, whenever*, in clauses denoting Repeated Action or General Truth, though the Subjunctive is often used:

Haec renovābam, cum licēbat, I was wont to renew my acquaintance with these subjects whenever an opportunity offered; C. Acad. P. 1, 3, 11. Cum rosam viderat, tunc incipere vēr arbitrābātur, whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, he thought that spring was beginning; C. Ver. 5, 10, 11. Erat, cum dē iūre cīvili disputārētur, argūmentōrum cōpia whenever the discussion was about the civil law, there was an abundance of arguments.

NOTE. — **Memini cum**, *I remember when*, generally takes the Indicative; **audiō cum, vidēō cum**, and **animadvertō cum** generally the Subjunctive:

Memini, cum mihi dēspere vidēbāre, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise; C. Fam. 7, 28, 1. Soleō audire Rōscium, cum dicat, I am accustomed to hear Roscius say (when he says); C. Or. 1, 28, 129. Ego ex iis saepe audiī, cum dicērent, etc., I have often heard them say (from them when they said); C. Or. 2, 37, 155.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Postquam, Ubi, Ut, ETC.** *

602. Rule. — Temporal Clauses, introduced by the particles, **postquam, postea quam, after, pridie quam, postridie quam, on the day before, on the day after; ubi, ut, simul, simul atque, when, as, as soon as, --** state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present:

Postquam omnēs Belgārum cōpiās ad sē venire vidit, castra posuit, after he saw that all the forces of the Belgae were coming against him, he pitched his camp; Caes. 2, 5, 4. Pridie quam tū coactus es cōfiteri, etc., on the day before you were compelled to admit, etc.; C. Ver. 5, 30, 77. Ubi dē eius adventu certiōrēs facti sunt, when they were informed of his approach. Id ut audivit, as soon as he heard this. Simul in arido constitērunt, as soon as they stood on dry land. Postquam vident, after they saw.

1. The Pluperfect is used to denote the result of a Completed action, and to mark the interval between two events:

Postea quam bis cōsul fuerat, after he had been twice consul; C. Div. C. 21, 69. Annis sex postquam vōverat, six years after he had made the vow; L. 42, 10.

2. The Pluperfect is also used to denote Repeated or Customary action:

Ut quisque vñerat, hæc visere solēbat, *every one, as he came, was wont to visit these objects*; C. Ver. 4, 3, 5.

NOTE 1. — Other tenses of the Indicative are comparatively rare, though the Present and Imperfect are sometimes used to denote Incomplete action :

Postquam aurum habēs, *now that you have the gold*; Pl. Truc. 919. Postquam nox aderat, *when night was approaching*; S. 58, 7.

NOTE 2. — In a few passages, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are found after **postquam** and **postea quam** :

Postea quam sūmptuōsa fieri fūnera coepissent, Solōnis lēge sublāta sunt, *after funerals had begun to be expensive, they were abolished by Solon's law*; C. Leg. 2, 25, 64.

3. In Livy and the late historians, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are often used in temporal clauses to denote Repeated action and General truth, and sometimes even in earlier writers :

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittēbat, *when he had said this, he was wont to hurl a spear*; L. 1, 32, 13. Ut quisque veniret, *as each one arrived*; L. 2, 38.

4. In any temporal clause, the Subjunctive may be used in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, *you, one, any one* :

Ubi periculum faciās, *when you make the trial*; Pl. Bac. 63. Ubi revēnissēs domum, *when you (any one) had returned home*. Priusquam incipiās, cōn-sultō opus est, *before you begin, there is need of deliberation*; S. C. 1, 6.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Dum**, **Dōnec**, AND **Quoad**

603. Rule. — I. Temporal clauses with **dum**, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, meaning *as long as*, take the Indicative :

Hōc feci, dum licuit, *I did this as long as it was allowed*; C. Ph. 3, 13, 83. Hæc civitas, dum erit, lætabitur, *this state will rejoice as long as it shall exist*. Dōnec eris sospes, *as long as you shall be prosperous*. Quoad potuit, restitit, *he resisted as long as he could*; Cæs. 4, 12, 6.

II. Temporal clauses with **dum**, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, meaning *until*, take :

1. The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an actual fact :

Dēliberā hōc, dum ego redeō, *consider this until I return*; T. Ad. 196. Dōnec perfecerō hōc, *until I shall have accomplished this*. Quoad renūtiātum est, *until it was actually announced*; N. 15, 9, 3.

2. The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived :

Differant, dum dēfervēscat ira, *let them defer it until their anger cools, or shall cool*; C. Tusc. 4, 36, 78. Exspectās dum dicat, *you are waiting until he speaks* (i.e. that he may speak). Dōnec cōsiliō patrēs firmāret, *until he strengthened the senators by his counsel*. Eā continēbis quoad tē videam, *you will keep them until I see you*: C. Att. 13, 21, 4.

604. Special Constructions of dum and dōnec. — Note the following :

1. **Dum**, meaning *while*, as distinguished from *as long as*, generally takes the Historical Present Indicative (533. 4), but in the poets and in the historians it sometimes takes the Imperfect Subjunctive :

Dum ea geruntur, Caesari nūntiūm est, *while those things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar*. Eam ea gerebantur, bellum conctur, *while those things were taking place, war was begun*; L. 10, 18.

2. **Dōnec** belongs chiefly to poetry and late prose. It is not found in Caesar or Sallust, and only four times in Cicero. In Livy **dōnec**, meaning *while*, is found with the Imperfect Subjunctive of a repeated action, and with the meaning *until* it is found with the Pluperfect Subjunctive. In Tacitus, when it means *until*, it generally takes the Subjunctive, whatever the tense :

Nihil trepidābant, dōnec continēti velut ponte agerentur, *they did not fear at all while they were driven on a continuous bridge, as it were*; L. 21, 28. Rhēnus servat violentiam cursūs, dōnec Ōceanō miscēatur, *the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current until it mingles with the ocean*; Tac. A. 2, 6, 3.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Antequam** AND **Priusquam**

605. Rule. — I. In Temporal clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam** the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived :

Antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dicam, *before I resume asking your opinions, I shall say a few words in regard to myself*; C. C. 4, 10, 20. Nec prius respexī quam vēnimus, *nor did I look back until we arrived*. Priusquam incipiās, cōsultō opus est, *before you begin, there is need of deliberation*; S. C. 1, 6. Nōn prius ducēs dimittunt, quam sit concessum, etc., *they did not let the leaders go, until it was granted, etc.*; Caes. 3, 18, 7.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive :¹

Pervēnit, priusquam Pompeius sentire posset, *he arrived before Pompey could become aware of his approach*; Caes. C. 3, 67, 4. Paucis ante diēbus quam Syracūsae caperentur, *a few days before Syracuse was taken*; L. 25, 31, 12. Antequam dē meō adventū audire potuissent, in Macedoniam porrēxi, *before they were able (had been able) to hear of my approach, I went straight into Macedonia*; C. Planc. 41, 98.

1. When the Principal clause is negative, and contains an historical tense, the Temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the second example under the rule, rarely the Imperfect, Indicative or Subjunctive :

Nec, antequam virēs deerant, expūgnāti sunt, *nor were they captured until their strength failed*; L. 23, 30, 4. Nōn prius egressus est quam rēx eum in fidem reciperet, *he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection*; N. 2, 8, 4.

2. The Future Indicative is exceedingly rare, and is found only in Plautus and Cato :

Priusquam istam pūgnam pūgnābō, *before I fight that battle*; Pl. Pseud. 524.

3. The Pluperfect Subjunctive is very rare; see the third example under II.

INFINITIVE. — SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

606. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

607. Rule. — Infinitive. — Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning :

Cupio vidēre, qui id audeat dicere, *I desire to see who will dare to say this*; C. Phil. 5, 2, 6. Proeliō supersedēre statuit, *he decided to avoid (abstain from) a battle*; Caes. 2, 8. Dēsino quaerere, *I forbear to inquire*. Latīnē loqui didicerat, *he had learned to speak Latin*; S. 101, 6. Quid facere cōgitās, *what do you intend to do?* Dubitās abire, *do you hesitate to depart?* Persium nōn cūrō legere, *I do not care to read Persius*. Dēbēs hōc rescribere, *you ought to write this in reply*.

¹ The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect is sometimes best explained like the Subjunctive after *Dum*, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after *cum*; see 600, II.

1. The Infinitive is used especially with transitive verbs meaning *to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to intend, prepare; to hesitate, not to care, refuse; to owe, be under obligations, etc.*

NOTE. — After these verbs the Infinitive is the object of the action, like the Accusative with a transitive verb, but with some of them the Subjunctive is sometimes used; see 565, 568, etc.

2. The Infinitive is also used with Intransitive verbs meaning *to be able, to be wont, be accustomed, etc.*:

Mortem effugere nēmō potest, *no one is able to escape death.* Rūri esse soleō, *I am wont to be in the country.*

ORIGIN, EARLY USE, AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE INFINITIVE

608. Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been made up of Dative and Locative forms of a verbal noun. Indeed, in early Latin and in the poets, rarely in classical prose, it is used in special constructions with nearly the same force as the Dative of Purpose or End (425, 3). It is thus used:

1. With many Intransitive verbs, especially with those which denote Motion, **eō**, **abeō**, **veniō**:

Illa abiit aedem visere Minervae, *she has gone to see the temple of Minerva;* Pl. Bac. 900. Ibit aurum arcessere, *he will go to get the gold.* Nōn populāre penātēs vēnimus, *we have not come to lay waste your homes;* V. 1, 527.

2. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus ēgit aitōs visere montēs,¹ *he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains;* H. 1, 2, 7. Quid habēs dicere, *what have you to say?* Dederat comam diffundere ventis,¹ *she had given her hair to the winds to scatter;* V. 1, 319.

3. Sometimes, chiefly in poetry and late prose, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive:

Gentem hortor amāre focōs, *I exhort the race to love their homes;* V. 3, 133. Cuncti suāsērunt Itāliam petere, *all advised to seek Italy;* V. 3, 363.

4. With a few adjectives:

Est parātus audire, *he is prepared to hear;* C. Inv. 1, 16, 23. Avidi committere pūgnam, *eager to engage in battle;* O. M. 5, 75. Fōns rivō dare nōmen idōneus, *a fountain worthy to give its name to the river;* H. E. 1, 16, 12.

¹ In these examples with transitive verbs, observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under 424, and that the Accusative, Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under 433.

NOTE 1. — With adjectives, and participles used as adjectives, the Infinitive, rare in prose, is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions :

Cantāre peritus, *skilled to sing, or in singing* ; V. Ec. 10, 32. Piger scribendi ferre labōrem, *reluctant to bear the labor of writing* ; H. 8. 1, 4, 12. Erat dignus amāri, *he was worthy to be loved*. Certa mori, *determined to die*. Vitulus niveus vidēri, *a calf snow-white to view* ; H. 4, 2, 59.

NOTE 2. — The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as **cōpia est, tempus est** :

Cupido Stygiōs innāre lacūs, *a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes* ; V. 6. 133. Quibus molliter vivere cōpia erat, *who had the means for living at ease* ; S. C. 17, 6. Tempus est maiōra cōnāri, *it is time to attempt greater things* ; L. 6, 18, 13.

609. Infinitive as Object or Subject. — From this early use of the Infinitive to denote the Object or End of the Motion, or Action, expressed by the verb, was gradually developed its use as a General Modifier of the verb and as the Direct Object of the action :

Eximus ludōs viscere,¹ *we have come out to see the sports* ; Pl. Cas. 855. Mortem effugere nēmō potest, *no one is able to escape death*. Magna negōtia volunt agere,¹ *they wish to perform great deeds*. Scythiis bellum inferre¹ dēcrēvit, *he decided to wage war against the Scythians* ; N. 1, 8, 1.

1. From the use of the Infinitive as the direct object of the action was developed its use as the Subject of the verb :

Dēcrēverunt nōn dare signum, *they decided not to give the signal*. Dēcrētum est nōn dare signum, *it was decided not to give the signal*.

2. The Infinitive sometimes occurs with Prepositions :

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, *there is a great difference between giving and receiving* ; Sen. Ben. 5, 10, 1.

610. Historical Infinitive. — In lively descriptions, the Present Infinitive, like the Historical Present, is sometimes used for the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative :

Catilina in primā acie versāri, omnia prōvidēre, multum ipse pūgnāre, saepe hostem ferire, *Catiline was active in the front line, he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy* ; S. C. 60, 4.

¹ **Visere** illustrates this early use of the Infinitive, but **agere** is the direct object of **volunt** and **inferre** of **dēcrēvit**.

1. The **Historical Infinitive** sometimes denotes customary or repeated action:

Omnia in p̄ius ruere ac retrō referri, all things change rapidly for the worse, and are borne backwards; V. G. 1, 199

2. Remember that the subject of an Infinitive, when not historical, is put in the Accusative, and that it was originally developed from the direct object of the principal verb (414, 415):

Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself.

NOTE. — In this example, **rēgem** is the subject of **abdidisse**, but originally it was the direct object of **trādunt**.

3. An Infinitive and its subject, with their modifiers, form what is called an Infinitive clause, in distinction from the simple Infinitive. Thus, in the example just given, **rēgem sē abdidisse** is an Infinitive clause.

611. Passive Construction. — When a Transitive verb, which has an Accusative and an Infinitive depending upon it, becomes Passive, it may admit one or both of the following constructions:

1. The Personal construction, in which the noun or pronoun which is the object of the active becomes the subject of the passive. Thus, **rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse**, if made to take the personal construction in the passive, becomes **rēx sē abdidisse trāditur**, *the king is said to have concealed himself*.

2. The Impersonal construction, in which the verb is used impersonally, and the rest of the sentences unchanged, becomes the impersonal subject. Thus, **rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse**, if made to take the impersonal construction in the passive, becomes **rēgem sē abdidisse trāditur**, *it is said that the king concealed himself*.

NOTE 1. — A few verbs admit either the personal or the impersonal construction, as **dīcor**, **iūdicor**, **nūntior**, **putor**, and **trādor**.

NOTE 2. — A few verbs generally take the personal construction, as **iubeor**, **vetor**, and **videor**; also, **arguor**, **audior**, **cōgnōscor**, **existimor**, **intellegor**, **invenior**, **prohibeor**, **reperiōr**, etc.

NOTE 3. — A few verbs generally take the impersonal construction, as **adfertur**, **cōfitemdum est**, **crēditur**, **fatendum est**, **prōditur**, etc.

612. A Predicate Noun, or a Predicate Adjective, after an Infinitive, or a Participle in a compound tense of an Infinitive, agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rules of agreement (393, 394). It is thus put:

1. In the Nominative, when it is predicated of the principal subject:

Sōcratēs pārēns philosophiae dici potest, *Socrates can be called the father of philosophy*; C. Fin. 2, 1.

2. In the Accusative, when predicated of the subject of the Infinitive, expressed or understood:

Ego mē Phīdīam esse māllē, *I should prefer to be Phidias*; C. Brut. 73, 257. Contentum suis rēbus esse māximae sunt divitiae, *to be content with one's own is very great wealth*; C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

NOTE 1. — In the compound forms of the Infinitive, **esse** is often omitted, especially in the future:

Flūmēn neque hostēs trānsiturōs existimābat, *nor did he think that the enemy would cross the river*; Caes. 6, 7, 5.

NOTE 2. — As a rare exception in early Latin, the participle in the Future Active Infinitive occurs with the ending **ūrum** regardless of the gender of the subject:

Alterō tē occisūrum ait, alterō vilicū, *with one (sword) she says that she will kill you, with the other the bailiff*; Pl. Cas. 693.

3. Generally in the Dative, but sometimes in the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patriciō tribūnō plēbis fieri nōn licēbat, *it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people*; C. Har. 21, 41. Ei cōsulem fieri licet, *it is lawful for him to be made consul*; Caes. C. 3, 1, 1.

INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS OBJECT

613. The Accusative and an Infinitive, or an Infinitive with a Subject Accusative, is used as the Object of a great variety of verbs, especially of verbs of Perceiving, Thinking, and Declaring:

Sentimus nivem esse albam, *we perceive that snow is white*. Nēmō umquam prōditōri crēdendum putāvit, *no one ever thought that we ought to trust a traitor*. Simōnidem primum ferunt artem memoriae prōtulisse, *they say that Simonides was the first to make known the art of memory*; C. Or. 2, 86, 351.

1. Verbs of Perceiving and Thinking include **audiō**, **videō**, **sentiō**; **cōgitō**, **putō**, **existimō**, **crēdō**, **spērō**; **intelligō**, **sciō**, etc.

2. Verbs of Declaring are **dīcō**, **nārrō**, **nūntiō**, **doceō**, **ostendō**, **prōmittō**, etc.

3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring — as **fama fert**, **report says**; **testis sum**, *I am a witness, I testify*; **cōnsciū**

mihi sum, I am conscious, I know — also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nūllam mihi relātam esse grātiām, tū es testis, you are a witness that no grateful return has been made to me; C. Fam. 5, 5, 2.

4. Verbs of Perceiving generally take the Accusative with a Present Participle when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given act:

Catōnem vīdī in bibliothēca sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library; C. Fin. 3, 2, 7. *Videt sequentēs, ūnum haud procul ab sēsē abesse, he sees them following, one not far from himself*; L. 1, 25, 8.

5. Note the following constructions with **audiō**:

Sōcratem audiō dicentem, I hear Socrates say; C. Fin. 2, 23, 60. *Soleō audire Rōscium, cum dicat, I am wont to hear Roscius say*; C. Or. 1, 28, 129. *Saepe ex socerō meō audiui, cum is diceret, I have often heard (from) my father-in-law say*; C. Or. 2, 6, 22.

6. **Subjects Compared.** — When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platōnem ferunt sēnsisse idem quē l Pythagorā, they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39.

7. **Predicates Compared.** — When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second, or the second clause may take the Subjunctive with or without **ut**:

Num putātis, dixisse eum minācius quam faciūrum fuisse, do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. *Audeō dicere ipsōs potius cultōrēs agrōrum fore quam ut eoll prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled*; L. 2, 34.

614. An Infinitive Clause is also used as the Object of verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites,¹ and of verbs of Emotion and Feeling¹:

Tē tuā frui virtūte cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue; C. Brut. 97, 331. *Pontem iubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Lēx eum necārī vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death*.

Gaudeō id tē mihi suādere, I rejoice that you give me this advice. Minimē mirāmur tē laetārī, we do not wonder at all that you were pleased.

¹ As **cupiō, optō, volō, nōlō, mālō**, etc.; **patior, sinō, imperō, iubeō; prohibeō, vetō**, etc.; **gaudeō, doleō, miror, queror, aegrē ferō**, etc.

1. Several verbs involving a Wish or a Command admit the Subjunctive, with or without **ut** or **nē**, when a new subject is introduced :

Volō ut mihi respondeās, *I wish you would answer me*; C. Vat. 6, 14. **Quid vis faciam**, *what do you wish me to do?* **Suis imperāvīt nē quod telum in hostēs rēicerent**, *he commanded his men not to hurl any weapon back upon the enemy.*

2. **Volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, and **cupiō** also admit the simple Infinitive when no new subject is introduced :

Vērū audire nōn vult, *he does not wish to hear the truth.* **Servire quam pugnāre māvult**, *he prefers to serve rather than to fight.* **Scire cupiō quid reprehendās**, *I desire to know what you criticise.*

3. On the construction of **volō**, **nōlō**, and **mālō**, see also 565, 2.

4. Verbs of Emotion and Feeling sometimes take a clause with **quod**, *that* or *because*, and sometimes with **cum**, in nearly the same sense :

Gaudeō quod tē interpellāvi, *I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you.* **Dolēbam quod socium amiseram**; *I was grieving because I had lost a companion.* **Tibi grātiās agō, cum tantum litterae meae potuerunt**, *I thank you that my letter had so great influence*; C. Fam. 13, 24, 2.

INFINITIVE OR INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS SUBJECT

615. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive Clause, is often used as the Subject of a verb :

Infinitive. — **Diligī iucundum est**, *to be loved is pleasant.* **Nōn est mentīri meum**, *to tell a falsehood is not my way.* **Peccāre licet nēmīni**, *to transgress is lawful for no one.* **Facere fortia Rōmānum est**, *to do brave deeds is Roman.* **Vacāre culpā māgnū est sōlācium**, *to be free from fault is a great comfort.* **Cārum esse iucundum est**, *to be held dear is delightful*; C. Fin. 1, 16, 58.

Infinitive Clause. — **Caesarī nūtiātum est equitēs accēdere**, *it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching*; Caes. 1, 46. **Facinus est vincere civem Rōmānum**; *scelus, verberāre, to bind a Roman citizen is an outrage; to scourge him, a crime.* **Omnibus expedit, salvam esse rem publicam**, *it is important for all that the republic should be safe.*

1. When the subject is an Infinitive or an Infinitive clause, the predicate is either a noun or adjective with the verb **sum**, or a verb used impersonally, as in the examples above.

2. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive clause, may be the subject of another Infinitive :

Intellegi necesse est esse deōs, *it is necessary that it be understood that there are gods*; C. N. D. 1, 17, 44.

3. The Infinitive sometimes has a demonstrative or a possessive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hōc displicet philosophārī, *this philosophizing displeases some persons*; C. Fin. 1, 1. Vivere ipsum turpe est nobis, *to live is itself ignoble for us*; cf. C. Att. 13, 23, 2. Tuom cōfertō amāre semper, *always consider your loving (your love affairs)*; Pl. Cure. 28.

616. Special Constructions. — An Infinitive Clause is sometimes used

1. As a Predicate:

Exitus fuit orationis sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse posse, *the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with these*; Caes. 4, 2.

NOTE. — Occasionally an Infinitive without a Subject is so used:

Doctō hominū vivere est cōgitāre, *to a learned man to live is to think*; C. Tusc. 5, 88, 111.

2. As an Appositive:

Ōrāculum erat datum victricēs Athēnās fore, *an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious*. Hōc admirātus sum, mentionem tē hērēditātum ansum esse facere, *I wondered at this, that you dared to make mention of the inheritances*; C. Ph. 2, 16, 42.

3. In Exclamations:

Tē sic vexārī, *that you should be thus troubled!* Mēne inceptō dēsistere victam, *am I vanquished to abandon my undertaking?* V. 1, 37.

4. In the Ablative Absolute:

Alexander, auditō Dārēum mōvisse, pergit, *Alexander, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard) advanced*; Curt. 5, 13, 1.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

617. The three tenses of the Infinitive, the Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time of the action respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb. Accordingly the Present denotes that the action is contemporaneous with that of the principal verb, the Perfect, that it is prior to it, and the Future, that it is subsequent to it.

618. The Present Infinitive denotes Contemporaneous Action:

Nōlite id velle quod fieri nōn potest, *do not wish that which cannot be accomplished*. Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālebat, *Cato preferred to be*

good rather than to seem good. Quousque dicēs pācem velle tē, *how long will you say that you desire peace?*

1. The Present Infinitive, like the Present Indicative (533, 2), is sometimes used of actions really future:

Crās argentum dare sē dixit, *he said that he would give the silver on the morrow*; T. Ph. 5, 81.

2. After the past tenses of **dēbeō**, **oportet**, **possum**, and the like, the Present Infinitive is generally used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after **meminī**, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Liberōs tuōs erudire dēbuistī, *you ought to have educated your children*; C. Ver. 3, 69, 161. Nōn suscipi bellum oportuit, *the war should not have been undertaken*. Cōsul esse potuī, *I might have been consul*. Mē Athēnis audire meminī, *I remember to have heard at Athens*; C. Leg. 1, 20, 53.

619. The Future Infinitive denotes Subsequent Action:

Amicitiae nostrae memoriam spērō sempiternam fore, *I hope that the recollection of our friendship will be eternal*; C. Am. 4, 15. Sē ēversūrum civitātem minābātur, *he threatened that he would overthrow the state*. Pollicitus ils sum mē omnia esse factūrum, *I promised them that I would do everything*. Galliae sēsē potiri posse spērant, *they hope to be able to get possession of Gaul*.

1. After **spērō**, **iūrō**, **minor**, and **polliceor** the Future Infinitive is generally used, as in the examples just given, though the Present and Perfect also occur. Moreover the Present, **posse**, is freely used with these verbs, as in the last example.

2. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic form, **futūrum esse ut**, or **fore ut**, with the Subjunctive, generally Present or Imperfect, is sometimes used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nobis, *I hope (it will come to pass) that this will fall to our lot*; C. Tusc. 1, 34, 82. Nōn spērāverat Hannibal, fore ut ad sē dēficerent, *Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him*; L. 28, 44.

3. This periphrastic form is somewhat rare, though it is the only form admissible in either voice in verbs which want the Supine and the Participle in **tūrus**.

4. In the Passive and Deponent verbs, **fore** with the Perfect Participle is sometimes used with the force of a Future Perfect, to denote completed action in future time:

Possum dicere mē satis adēptum fore, *I can say that I shall have obtained enough*; C. Sol. 9, 27. Dēbellātum mox fore rēbantur, *they thought that the war would soon be (have been) brought to a close*; L. 23, 13, 6.

620. The Perfect-Infinitive denotes Prior Action :

Platōnem ferunt didicisse Pythagorēa omnia, *they say that Plato learned all the doctrines of Pythagoras*; C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39. Cōnscius mihi eram, nihil à me commissum esse, *I was conscious to myself that no offense had been committed by me.*

1. The Perfect Infinitive is sometimes used where our idiom requires the Present, but it generally calls attention to the completion of the action. In the active voice this construction is rare except in the poets and in Livy, but in the passive it is quite freely used with verbs of wishing, especially with **volō**, even by the best writers :

Quōs pulverem Olympicum collēgisse iuvat, *whom it delights to collect (to have collected) the Olympic dust*¹; H. 1, 1, 3. Vēsānum tetigisse timent poētā, *they fear to touch the mad poet.* Quibus lēx cōsultum esse vult, *whose interests the law requires us to consult*; C. Div. C. 6, 21.

NOTE. — In this construction **esse** is very often omitted :

Illōs monitōs volō, *I wish them admonished*; C. C. 2, 12, 27. Nōllem factum, *I should not wish it done*; T. Ad. 165.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive, like the Perfect Passive Indicative, sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus **doctum esse** may mean either to *have been instructed*, or to *be a learned man*. In the best prose, **esse** is used if the result belongs to the present time; **fuisse**, if it belongs to past time; but subsequently this distinction between the Infinitive with **esse** and the Infinitive with **fuisse** gradually disappeared :

Populum alloquitur sōpitum fuisse rēgem ictū, *she addressed the people, saying that the king had been stunned by the blow*; L. 1, 41, 5.

GERUNDIVES AND GERUNDS

621. The Gerundive is a verbal adjective or participle, which is used in several special constructions. With the verb, **sum, it forms the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, denoting Duty or Necessity. This conjugation may be either Personal or Impersonal.**

1. The Periphrastic Conjugation of Transitive verbs generally takes the personal construction :

Occultae inimicitiae timendae sunt, *concealed hostilities are to be feared.* Caesari omnia erant agenda; aciēs instruenda, milites cohortandi, signum

¹ Referring to the chariot races at the Olympic Games.

dandum, *Caesar had every thing to do* (every thing **was** to be done); *to form the line, exhort the soldiers, give the signal*; *Caes.* 2, 20, 1.

2. The Passive Periphrastic conjugation of Intransitive verbs always takes the impersonal construction, and may govern the same case as the other forms of the verbs :

Resistendum senectūti est ; pugnandum contrā senectūtem, *we must resist old age ; we must fight against old age* ; *C. Sen.* 11, 35. Aut rei publicae mihi, aut mei obliviscendum est, *I must forget either the republic or myself* ; *cf. L.* 8, 7, 16.

3. Sometimes in Plautus and Lucretius, rarely in later writers, the Passive Periphrastic conjugation of transitive verbs takes the impersonal construction and admits the Accusative :

Mi hāc noctū agitandumst vigiliās, *I must keep watch this night* ; *Pl. Trin.* 569. Poenās timendumst, *we must fear punishment*. Viam quam nobis ingrediendum est, *a journey upon which we must enter*.

622. The Gerundive is sometimes used as a Predicate Accusative to denote the Purpose of the action, chiefly after verbs of Giving, Delivering, Sending, Permitting, Undertaking, Caring for, etc., — *dō, trādō, mittō, suscipiō, cūrō*, etc. :

Praeda diripienda data est, *the booty was given up to be plundered* ; *L.* 22, 52, 5. Hōs Aeduis cūstodiendōs trāditi, *these he delivered to the Aedui to guard*. Caesar pontem faciendum cūrat, *Caesar has a bridge made*.

623. The Gerundive in direct agreement with a noun in an oblique case forms with that noun what is called the Gerundive construction :

Cōsilia urbis delendae, *plans for destroying the city* (of the city to be destroyed). Locum oppidō condendō cēperunt, *they selected a place for founding a town*. Ferrum, rem ad colendōs agrōs necessariam, *iron, a thing necessary in (to or for) cultivating the land*. Ip amicis eligendis, *in selecting friends* (in friends to be selected).

1. This construction is confined to transitive verbs, including a few verbs originally transitive, though not thus used in classical prose, as *ūtor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, and *potior*, etc. :

Ad haec stenda, *for using these things* ; *T. Heant.* 188. Ad suum minus fungendum, *for discharging his duty*. Spēs potiendōrum castrōrum, *the hope of getting possession of the camp*.

624. The Neuter of the Gerundive, used impersonally, forms the Gerund, a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers:

Sum cupidus tē audiendī, *I am desirous of hearing you*; C. Or. 2, 4, 16. Ars vivendī, *the art of living*. Ad bene beatēque vivendum, *for living well and happily*; C. Fam. 6, 1, 8.

USE OF CASES IN THE GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION AND IN GERUNDS

625. All the oblique cases — the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative — occur both in the Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds, and in general they conform to the ordinary rules for the use of cases.

626. Genitive. — The Genitive in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds is used with nouns and adjectives:

Gerundive. — Initia sunt cōsilia urbis dēlendae, *plans have been formed for destroying the city*; C. Mur. 37, 80. Platōnis studiōsus audiendī, *desirous of hearing Plato*.

Gerund. — Sapientia ars vivendī putanda est, *wisdom should be regarded as the art of living*. Iūs vocandī senātum, *the right of summoning the senate*. Artem vērā ac falsa dīiudicandī, *the art of distinguishing true things from false*; C. Or. 2, 38, 157.

1. In Transitive verbs the Gerundive construction is preferred, as in the first and second examples, though the Gerund is often used as in the fourth and fifth examples, but with neuter pronouns and adjectives the Gerund is regularly used; thus **artem vērā dīiudicandī**, not **artem vērōrum dīiudicandōrum**, because **vērōrum** may mean *of true men*.

2. In Intransitive verbs the Gerund is the regular construction, as in the third example.

3. In the Gerundive construction with the pronouns **meī**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostrī**, and **vestrī**, the Gerundive ends in **dī**, as these pronouns were originally possessives in the Genitive singular masculine:

Sui pūrgandī causā, *for the sake of excusing themselves*; C. acs. 4, 18, 5. Cōpia plācandī tui (feminine), *an opportunity of appeasing you*. Vestrī adhortandī causā, *for the purpose of exhorting you*.

4. In rare instances the Genitive of the Gerund occurs with another Genitive depending upon the same noun:

*Lūcis*¹ *tuendi cōpia*, the *privilege of beholding the light*; cf. Pl. Capt. 1008. *Rēciendi iūdicum*¹ *potestās*, the *power of challenging the judges*; cf. C. Ver. 2, 81, 77.

5. The Genitive in the Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds sometimes denotes Purpose or Tendency :

Imperium cōservandae libertātis fuerat, the *government had aimed at the preservation of liberty* (had been of liberty to be preserved); S. C. 6, 7. *Vereor tē laudāre nē id adsentandī facere existumēs*, *I fear to praise you, lest you should think that I do it for the purpose of flattery*. *Proficiscitur cōgnōscendae antiquitātis*, he *sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity*.

NOTE. — *Libertātis*, in the first example, is in origin a Predicate Genitive after *fuerat*, and the Genitive in the other examples follows the same analogy.

627. Dative. — The Dative is rare both in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds, but it occurs with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative :

Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adiēcit, *Numa turned his mind to the appointment of the priests*. *Cum solvendō nōn essent*, *since they were not able to pay*. *Tempora dēmetendis fructibus accommodāta*, *seasons suitable for gathering fruits*; C. Sen. 13, 70. *Sunt acuendis puerōrum ingeniis nōn infūtilēs lūsūs*, *games are useful (not useless) for sharpening the intellects of boys*; Quint. 1, 3, 11.

1. The Dative of the Gerund with a direct object occurs only in Plautus.

2. The Dative in these constructions often denotes Purpose, or the End for which anything is done, and is sometimes used after certain official names, as *decemvirī*, *triumvirī*, *comitia*, etc. :

Ea tuendae Syriac parantur, *these preparations are made for the purpose of guarding Syria*; Tac. An. 15, 4. *Comitia cōsulis rogandis habuit*, *he held the comitia for the election of consuls*; C. Div. 1, 17, 83. *Decemvirōs lēgibus scribendis creāvimus*, *we have appointed decemvirs to prepare laws*; L. 4, 4, 8.

628. Accusative. — The Accusative in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds² is used with a few prepositions, generally with *ad* :

Haec rēs Caesarī difficultātem ad cōsiliū capiendū adferēbat, *this fact presented a difficulty to Caesar in the way of forming his plans*; Caes. 7, 10.

¹ Here *lūcis*, though apparently limiting *tuendi*, probably depends upon *cōpia*, and *iūdicum* probably depends upon *potestās*.

² The use of the Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is without classical authority.

Ad audiendum parātī sumus, *we are prepared to hear*. Inter lūdendum, *during play*. In rem publicam cōservandam, *on the preservation of the republic*.

629. Ablative. — The Ablative of Separation and Source in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds generally takes a preposition, — *ā*, *ab*, *dē*, *ē*, or *ex*:

Ā pecūniis capiendis hominēs absterrere, *to deter men from accepting bribes*; C. Ver. 2, 58, 142. *Dēterrere ā scribendō*, *to deter from writing*. *De nostrō amicō plācandō*, *in regard to appeasing our friend*.

1. The Ablative of the Gerundive construction occurs also with *prō*, and in late writers with one or two other prepositions:

Prō omnibus gentibus cōservandis, *for the sake of preserving all races*; C. Off. 3, 5, 25.

2. The Ablative of the Gerundive construction occurs after a comparative in the following sentence:

Nūllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessariū est, *no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor*; C. Off. 1, 15, 47.

630. The Instrumental Ablative in Gerundive constructions and in Gerunds is generally used without a preposition:

Loquendi elegantia augētur legendis orātōribus, *elegance of speech is promoted by reading the orators*; C. Off. 3, 10, 39. *Caesar dandō, sublevandō, ignōscendō glōriam adeptus est*, *Caesar obtained glory by giving, aiding, and pardoning*. *Salūtem hominibus dandō*, *by giving safety to men*. *Fortia facta memorandō*, *by recounting brave deeds*.

1. The Gerundive seems at times, especially in the poets, to lose its distinctive force and to be nearly equivalent to a present or perfect participle:

Trigintā magnōs volvendis mēnsibus (characteristic) *orbis*, *thirty great circles of revolving months*; V. 1, 262.

631. The Locative Ablative generally takes the preposition *in*, but it is sometimes used without it, especially in the poets:

Brūtus in liberandā patriā est interfectus, *Brutus was slain in freeing his country*. *Virtūtēs cernuntur in agendō*, *virtues are seen in action*. *In amicis eligendis negligentēs*, *careless in choosing friends*. *In suum cuique tribuendō*, *in giving to every one his due*; C. Brut. 21, 85.

1. After prepositions the Ablative of a Gerund with a direct object, as in the last example, is exceedingly rare.

SUPINES

632. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in **um**, an Accusative, and a form in **ū**, generally an Ablative, though perhaps sometimes a Dative.

1. The Supine in **um** governs the same case as the verb :

Lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid.

Supines in **um**

633. Rule. — The Supine in **um** is used with verbs of motion to express purpose :

Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Mittit rogātum vāsa, he sends to ask for the vases. Lēgātī vērērunt rēs repetitum, deputies came to demand restitution ; L. 3, 25, 6.

1. The Supine in **um** is sometimes used after verbs which do not directly express motion :

Daturne illa Pamphilō hodiē nūptum, is she given in marriage to-day to Pamphilus ? T. And. 301. *Lacedaemoniōs senem sessum recēpisse, that the Lacedaemonians welcomed the old man to a seat ;* C. Sen. 18, 63.

2. The Supine in **um** with the verb **eo** is equivalent to the forms of the Active Periphrastic conjugation, and may often be rendered literally :

Bonōs omnēs perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good ; cf. S. C. 52, 12.

3. The Supine in **um** with **iri**, the Infinitive Passive of **eo**, forms, it will be remembered (**235**, 2), the Future Passive Infinitive :

Brūtum visum iri & mē putō, I think that Brutus will be seen by me.

634. The Supine in **um** is not very common, though it occurs in a large number of verbs,¹ but Purpose may be denoted by various other constructions :

1. By the Subjunctive with **ut**, **nē**, **quō**, **quō minus** ; see **568**.
2. By the Subjunctive in Relative clauses ; see **590**.
3. By Gerundives or Gerunds ; see **622**, **626**, 5.
4. By Future Participles ; see **638**, 3.

¹ According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Supine in **um** is found in one hundred and seventy-nine verbs, and also forms an element in the Future Infinitive Passive of fifty-seven verbs.

Supines in ū

635. Rule.—The Supine in ū is generally used as an Ablative; sometimes perhaps as a Dative:

Quid est tam iucundum auditū, *what is so agreeable to hear* (in hearing)? C. Or. 1, 8, 81. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, *it is difficult to speak of the kind of death*; C. Am. 3, 12. Sed ita dictū opus est, *but it is necessary to say this* (so, thus). Incrēdibile memorātū est, *it is incredible to relate*. Pudet dictū, *it is a shame to tell*; Tac. Agr. 82.

1. The Supine in ū is used with adjectives, as **facilis, difficilis; credibilis, incredibilis; iucundus, infucundus; mirabilis, terribilis**, etc.; with **fās, nefās, opus**, and in early or late Latin, with two or three verbs.

2. The Supine in ū is comparatively rare.¹ The most common examples are **auditū, aditū, cōgnitū, dictū, factū; intelligētū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, relātū, scītū, tātū, tractātū, victū, visū**.

3. It is probable that the Supine in ū contained originally the forms both of the Dative and of the Ablative, and that such forms as **memorātui** are illustrations of the former:

Istaeo lepida sunt memorātui, *these things are fine to relate*; Pl. Bac. 62.

4. It is generally assumed that the second Supine never takes an object, but it may take the Ablative with a preposition, as in the second example, or an adverb, as in the third.

PARTICIPLES

636. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb to which it belongs:

Animus sē nōn vidēs alia cernit, *the mind, though it does not see itself* (not seeing itself), *discerns other things*; C. Tusc. 1, 27, 67.

1. Remember that participles are sometimes used as substantives (494):

Cōsiliō condentium urbēs, *in accordance with the policy of the founders of* (those who found) *cities*. Nihil difficile amanti putō, *I think nothing difficult for a lover*.

2. Participles used as substantives sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belong to them as participles, and sometimes assume adjective modifiers which belong to them as substantives:

¹ According to Draeger, II., p. 833, on the authority of E. L. Richter, *Dē Supinis Latinae Linguae*, the second Supine is found in one hundred and nine verbs, and is used with one hundred and sixty-two different adjectives.

Nōn tam praemia sequi rectē factōrum quam ipsa rectē facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds so much as good deeds themselves; C. Md. 35, 96. **Factum praeclārum atque divinum, an excellent and divine deed;** C. Ph. 2, 44, 114.

3. A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun with the preposition *without*:

Voluptātēs nōn erubescēns persequitur, he pursues pleasures without blushing; C. N. D. 1, 40, 111. **Nātūra dedit ūsūram vitae, nūlla praestitūtā diē, nature has given the loan of life without fixing the day for payment.**

4. The Perfect Participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with *of*:

Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, Homer lived before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded); C. Tusc. 1, 1, 3. **Prōditae patriae crimen, the charge of having betrayed the country.**

637. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Qualifying Relative clauses:

Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulantēs, improbi, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest.

638. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Adverbial clauses.

1. Participles sometimes denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

Platō scribēns est mortuus, Plato died while writing; C. Sen. 5, 13. **Fortissimē pugnāns interficitur, he is slain while bravely fighting.** **Renūntiant, sē perfidiā veritōs revertisse, they report that they returned because they feared perfidy.** **Rōmānī grātulantēs Horātium accipiunt, the Romans receive Horatius with congratulations** (congratulating). **Sōl oriēns diē cōnficit, the sun by its rising causes the day;** C. N. D. 2, 40, 102.

2. Participles sometimes denote Condition, or Concession:

Reluctante nātūrā, inritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. **Ista iam diū expectāns, nōn audeō tamen flāgitāre, though I have been long expecting your treatise, yet I do not dare to ask for it;** C. Ac. 1, 1, 3.

3. Participles sometimes denote Purpose, the Future in Livy and late writers, the Gerundive even in the best authors (622):

Rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, he returned to try (about to try) **the fortune of war;** L. 42, 62. **Dedit mihi epistolam legendam tuam, he gave me your letter to read.**

639. Participles are sometimes used in Latin where principal clauses would be required in English:

Classēm devictam cepit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered); N. 5, 2, 8.

1. Perfect Participles sometimes repeat the action of the preceding verb, or give its result:

Exercitum fundit, fūsum persequitur, he routs the army and pursues it routed; L. 1, 10, 4.

640. The Tenses of Participles, Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time, respectively, as Present, Past, and Future relatively to that of the principal verb. Thus, in relation to the principal action, the Present represents contemporaneous action, the Perfect, prior action, and the Future, subsequent action:

Mendāci hominī nē vērum quidem dicenti credere solēmus, we are not wont to believe a liar even when he speaks the truth; et. C. Div. 2, 71, 146. *Ūva mātūrāta dulcēscit, the grape, when it has been ripened (prior action), becomes sweet.* *Bona semper placitūra laudat, he praises blessings that will always please (subsequent action).*

1. The Perfect Participle in deponent and passive verbs is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Isdem ducibus āsus Numidās mittit, en 'loving the same persons as guides he sends the Numidians; *Caes. 2, 7, 1.* *Incensās perfert nāvis, he reports the firing of the ships (ships on fire)*; V 5, 665.

2. The Perfect Participle with **habēō** has nearly the same force as the corresponding English Perfect with *have*:

Equitātum coāctum habēbat, he had collected the cavalry (had the cavalry collected); *Caes. 1, 15, 1.*

3. Perfect Participles are often used as predicate adjectives to denote the Result of the action:

Id parātū sunt facere, they are prepared to do this; C. Quinct. 2, 8.

4. The want of a Perfect Active Participle is sometimes supplied by a Temporal Clause, and sometimes by a Perfect Passive Participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Postquam in Trēvirīs vēnit, Rhēnum trānsire cōstituit, having arrived among the Treviri, he decided to cross the Rhine; *Caes. 6, 9, 1.* *Equitātū praemissō subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed.*

5. The want of a Present Passive Participle is generally supplied by a Temporal clause:

Cum ā Catōne laudābar, reprehendī mē ā cēteris facile patīēbar, being praised by Cato, I cheerfully bore being (to be) censured by the others; C. Orator, 18, 41.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE—ORATIO OBLIQUA

641. Direct and Indirect Discourse. — When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Direct Discourse, *Ōrātiō Rēcta*; but when he expresses thoughts, whether his own, or those of another, in any other form, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse, *Ōrātiō Obliqua*. The Indirect Discourse regularly depends upon a verb of Saying, Thinking, Perceiving, etc.:

Direct. — *Platō in Italiam vēnit, Plato came into Italy.*

Indirect with ferunt. — *Platōnem ferunt in Italiam vēnisse, they say that Plato came into Italy.*

Direct. — *Ūtilis est scientia, knowledge is useful.*

Indirect with arbitror. — *Ūtilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful.*

1. Words quoted without change belong to the Direct Discourse:

Direct. — *Duumvirōs secundum lēgem faciō, I appoint duumvirs according to law.*

Direct with inquit. — *Rēx “duumvirōs” inquit “secundum lēgem faciō,” the king said, “I appoint duumvirs according to law.”*

MOODS AND TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Moods in Principal Clauses

642. Rule. — The principal clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative:

Dicō classem magnam superatam esse atque depressam,¹ I say that a large fleet was conquered and sunk. Caesar respondit sē id facturum, Caesar replied that he would do it. Catō mirārī sē aīebat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Hippīas glōriātus est anulū sē suā manū cōnfēcisse,¹ Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hands; C. Or. 8, 32, 127.

¹ In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) *classis magna superata est atque depressa*, (2) *id faciam*, (3) *miror*, (4) *anulū meā manū cōnfēcī*. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in *faciam*, *miror*, and *cōnfēcī* are expressed with the Infinitive: *sē facturum*, *mirārī sē*, *sē cōnfēcisse*. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied.

Ad postulata Caesaris pauca respondit; quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possessionēs veniret,¹ *to the demands of Caesar he replied briefly, what did he (Caesar) wish? why did he come into his possessions?* Caes. 1, 44, 7. Respondērunt; cūr sui quicquam esse imperiī trans Rhēnum postulāret,¹ *they replied; why did he demand that anything beyond the Rhine should be under his sway?* Postulavit eadem, nē Aeduis bellum inferret, obsidēs redderet,² *he made the same demands, that he should not make war upon the Aedui, and that he should return the hostages.* Scribit Labiēno cum legiōne veniat,² *he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with his legion;* Caes. 5, 46, 4.

1. The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression, especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Pythia praecēpit ut Miltiadem imperātōrem sibi sūmerent; incepta prōspera futūra, *Pythia ordered that they should take Miltiades as their commander (telling them), that their efforts would be successful;* N. 1, 1, 8

2. Rhetorical Questions — which are questions only in form, as they are used for rhetorical effect in place of declarative sentences — take the Infinitive. Here belong most questions which in direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person:

Respondit, num memoriā dēpōnere posse,³ *he replied, could he lay aside the recollection?* Caes. 1, 14, 3. Docēbant ā Caesare conventūra subsidia; quid esse levius, etc., *they showed that assistance would come from Caesar; what was more inconsiderate, etc.?*

3. Deliberative and Potential Questions generally retain the Subjunctive from the Direct Discourse:

In spem vēnerat, sē sine pūgnā rem cōficere posse; cūr fortunam periclitārētur,⁴ *he had hoped (had come into the hope) to be able to accomplish the work without a battle; why should he try fortune?* Caes. C. 1, 52, 1.

4. In the Indirect Discourse, affirmative commands, except after verbs of wishing and asking, generally take the Subjunctive without *ut*, but negative commands take the Subjunctive with *nē*; see examples.

¹ In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) *quid tibi vis? cūr in meās possessionēs venis?* and (2) *cūr tui quicquam esse imperiī cis Rhēnum postulās?*

² In Direct Discourse, (1) *nōli Aeduis bellum inferre, obsidēs redde*, and (2) *cum legiōne veni*

³ Direct Discourse, (1) *num memoriā dēpōnere possum?* = *memoriā dēpōnere nōn possum*, (2) *quid est levius?* = *nihil est levius*.

⁴ Direct Discourse, *cūr fortunam periclitētur?*

5. After **iubeō** and **vetō**, commands are regularly expressed by the Accusative with the Infinitive, but occasionally by the Subjunctive with or without **ut** or **nē**, especially in poetry :

Nāvēs aedificārī iubet, he orders vessels to be built. Castra mūnirī vetuit, he forbade the camp to be fortified. Iubētō ut certet Amyntās, bid Amyntas be my rival ; V. E. 5, 15.

Moods in Subordinate Clauses

643. Rule. — The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Subjunctive :

Dicō classem māgnam quae ad Ītaliā raperētur, superatā esse,¹ I say that a large fleet, which was hurrying toward Italy, was conquered ; C. Man. 3, 21. Caesar respondit, sē id quod in Nervii fecisset, facturum,² Caesar replied that he would do that which he had done in the case of the Nervii. Hippīas glōriatus est anulū quem haberet sē suā manū cōnfēcisse,³ Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the ring which he wore.

1. Clauses introduced by relative pronouns, or by relative adverbs — as **ubi**, **unde**, **quārē**, etc. — sometimes have the force of independent clauses, and accordingly take the Infinitive with subject Accusative :

Ad eum dēfertur, esse cīvem Rōmānum quī quererētur, quem (= et eum) adservātum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard ; C. Ver. 5, 62, 160. Dēmōstrābitur, nē sī iūdicīō quidem illa damnāta esset potuisse hunc ipsum dē illā supplicium sūmere ; quārē esse indignum, it will be shown that not even if she had been condemned by a court of justice would he have been able to inflict punishment upon her ; that therefore it was a disgraceful act.

2. Clauses introduced by certain conjunctions, as **ut**, **quam**, **quamquam**, **quia**, and **cum**, sometimes take the Infinitive with subject Accusative, especially in Livy and Tacitus :

Num putātis, dixisse eum minācius quam facturum fuisse, do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted ? C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. Dicit sē moenibus inclūsōs tenēre eōs, quia per agrōs vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because they would wander through the fields. Cum interim lēgem tantam vim habēre, when in the mean time the law has such force ; L. 4, 51, 4.

¹ Direct, *classis magna quae ad Italiam rapiēbatur superata est.*

² Direct, *faciam id quod in Nervii feci.*

³ Direct, *anulum quem habeo meā manū cōnfeci.*

3. Parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the Indirect Discourse, without strictly forming a part of it, take the Indicative:

Referunt silvam esse, quae appellatur Bacēnis, *they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis*; Caes. 6, 10, 5. Condruśōs, qui Germāni appellantur, arbitrāri ad XL milia, *that they estimated the Condrusi, who are called Germans, at forty thousand*.

4. Sometimes clauses which are not parenthetical, especially relative and temporal clauses, take the Indicative to emphasize the fact stated:

Certior factus est ex eā parte vici, quam Gallis concesserat, omnēs discessisse, *he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls*; Caes. 3, 1.

644. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; but notice the following special points:

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, si obsidēs sibi dentur, sēsē cum iis pācem esse factūrum, *Caesar replied that if hostages should be given to him, he would make peace with them*; Caes. 1, 14, 6. Exitus fuit orationis, neque illōs vacāre agrōs, qui dari possint, *the close of the speech was that there were not any lands unoccupied which could be given*.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Cum trigeminis agunt rēgēs, ut prō suā patriā dimicent; illi imperium fore, unde victōria fuerit, *the kings arrange with the triplet-brothers that they shall fight for their country; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory* (whence the victory shall have been); L. 1, 24, 2.

PRONOUNS AND PERSONS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

645. In passing from the Direct Discourse to the Indirect, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Hippiās glōriātus est, pallium quō amictus esset, sē suā manū¹ cōnfēcisse, *Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the cloak which he wore*

¹ Direct, ego meā manū. Ego becomes sē, and meā becomes suā.

(in which he was clad). Respondit si obsidēs ab iis sibi¹ dentur, sēsē cum iis pācem esse factūrum, *he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them.*

1. Thus (1) **ego** is changed to **suī**, **sibi**, etc., or to **ipse**; **meus** and **noster** to **suus**; (2) **tū** to **is** or **ille**, sometimes to **suī**, etc., **tuus** and **vester** to **suus**, or to the Genitive of **is**; and (3) **hic** and **iste** generally to **ille**, but **hic** is sometimes retained. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed:

Miror tē ad mē nihil scribere, *I wonder that you do not write anything to me*; C. Att. 8, 12, B. 1.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

646. Conditional sentences of the First and of the Second Form in the Indirect Discourse take the Subjunctive in the Condition and the Infinitive in the Conclusion:

Respondit si quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venire oportere,² *he replied that if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him*; Caes. 1, 84, 2. Id si fieret, intellegēbat māgnō cum periculō futurum,³ *he understood that if this should be done, it would be attended with great danger*; Caes. 1, 10, 2.

1. The Future Infinitive is the regular construction in the Conclusion of the second form, as in the last example.

2. The Conclusion takes the Subjunctive when it is Imperative or Interrogative, and when it is brought into such connection as to require that mood, as when it is the purpose or result of some other action:

Scribit Labiēnō, si rei pūblicae commodō facere posset, cum legiōne veniat, *he wrote to Labienus to come with his legion, if he could do so consistently with the interests of the republic*; Caes. 5, 46, 4. Caesar suās cōpiās prōdūxit, ut si vellet Ariovistus proeliō contendere, ei potestās nōh deesset, *Caesar led out his forces in order that, if Ariovistus wished to fight, he might have the opportunity*; Caes. 1, 48, 3.

647. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form in the Indirect Discourse depending on a verb of Saying, Thinking, etc., retain the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive unchanged in the Condition, regardless of the Tense of the Principal verb, but in the

¹ Direct, a vōbis mihi . . . ego vōbiscum. Vōbis becomes iis, vōbiscum becomes cum iis, mihi becomes sibi, and ego, sēsē.

² Direct, si quid Caesar mē vult illum ad mē venire oportet.

³ Direct, id si fiat or fiet, māgnō cum periculō sit or erit.

Conclusion they take the Periphrastic Infinitive, the Present in **ūrum esse** when the condition belongs to present time, and the Perfect in **ūrum fuisse** when it belongs to past time:

Respondit, si quid ipsi ā Caesare opus esset, sese ad eum ventūrum fuisse, *he replied that, if he needed anything from Caesar, he would have come to him*; Caes. 1, 31, 2. Clāmītabat, neque aliter Carnūtes cōsiliū fuisse captūrōs, neque Eburōnēs, si ille adesset, ad castra ventūrōs esse, *he cried out that otherwise the Carnutes would not have conceived the purpose, nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp*; Caes. 5, 29, 2.

1. The conclusion of this form of the conditional sentence in the Indirect Discourse corresponds to the Periphrastic Indicative in the Direct Discourse. Thus, in the first example, the conclusion in the Direct Discourse would be **ad tē ventūrus fui**. Hence we have here the simple change from the Periphrastic Indicative to the Periphrastic Infinitive. For the close relationship in meaning between the Periphrastic Indicative and the regular Subjunctive, see 582, 1.

2. In the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form the circumlocation, **futūrum esse ut** or **fore ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive for present time, and **futūrum fuisse ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive for past time, is used in the passive voice and sometimes in the active:

Nisi nūnti essent allātī, existimābant futūrum fuisse ut oppidum amitteretur, *they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought*; cf. Caes. C. 3, 101, 8.

3. Remember that in the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form, certain special verbs (583) generally take the ordinary forms of the historical tenses of the Indicative. In the Indirect Discourse the Perfect Infinitive of course takes the place of this Indicative, and in deponent and passive verbs it sometimes occurs where we expect the circumlocation:

Platōnem existimō, si voluisset, gravissimē potuisse dicere, *I think that Plato could have spoken most forcibly, if he had wished*; c. Off. 1, 1, 4. Respondit, si populus Rōmānus alicuius iniūriae sibi cōsciū fuisse, nōn fuisse difficile cavēre, *he replied that if the Roman people had been conscious of any wrong doing, it would not have been difficult for them to be on their guard*. Nēmō mihi persuādēbit, multōs virōs tanta esse cōmātōs, nisi cernerent, etc., *no one will persuade me that many men would have attempted so great things, unless they perceived, etc.*; c. Sen. 23, 52.

648. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form depending on verbs which require the Subjunctive admit the following constructions:

I. If the condition relates to present time, the entire sentence remains unchanged :

Honestum tāle est, ut vel si Ignōrārent id hominēs, suā tamen pulchritūdine esset laudābile, *honor is such that, even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be praiseworthy because of its own beauty*; cf. C. Fin. 2, 15, 49.

II. If the condition relates to past time, the condition remains unchanged, but the conclusion, though unchanged in the passive, takes one of the following forms in the active :

1. If it is an indirect question, the Perfect or Pluperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is used, the tense being determined by the general law for the sequence of tenses :

Dic quidnam factūrus fueris si cēnsor fuissēs, *say what you would have done, if you had been censor*; L. 9, 33.

2. If it is not an indirect question, the Perfect Subjunctive of the Periphrastic Conjugation is generally used :

Quis dubitat, quān, si Saguntinis tulissēmus opem, tōtum in Hispāniam aversūri bellum fuerimus, *who doubts that if we had carried aid to the Saguntines, we should have transferred the entire war to Spain*? L. 81, 7.

3. But verbs denoting Ability, Duty, etc., **possum, oportet**, etc., generally take the Perfect Subjunctive of the regular conjugation :

Haud dubium fuit, quān, nisi ea mora intervēnisset, castra capī potuerint, *there was no doubt that the camp could have been taken, if that delay had not occurred*; L. 24, 42.

INDIRECT CLAUSES

649. Indirect Discourse in its widest application includes, not only reported speeches, but all indirect clauses.

I. Subordinate Clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than that of the speaker, or on the authority of the speaker at any other time than that when the statements are reported, regularly take the Subjunctive :

Laudat Africānum quod fuerit abstinēns,¹ *he praised Africanus because he was temperate*; C. Off. 2, 22, 76. Hospitem inclāmāvit quod mihi fidem habēre nōluisset, *he rebuked the stranger because he had been unwilling to put confidence in me*. Privātim petere coepēfunt, quoniam civitātī cōsultare nōn

¹ Quod . . . abstinēns, on the ground that, etc., the reason in the mind of the eulogist, not of the historian.

possent,¹ they began to present their personal petitions, since they could not act for the state. Librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset,² mihi dōnāvit, he gave me the books which his brother had left; C. Att. 2, 1, 12.

II. Indirect Questions are subordinate interrogative clauses and accordingly take the Subjunctive:

Epaminōndās quaesivit salvusne esset clipeus,³ Epaminondas inquired whether his shield was safe; cf. C. Fin. 2, 80, 97. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, what the nature of the soul may be, the soul knows not. Quaeritur, cūr doctissimī hominēs dissentiant, the question is asked why the most learned men disagree. Miror cūr mē accusēs, I wonder why you accuse me. Ut tē oblectēs scire cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself.

1. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question:

Cupiō scire ubi sis hiemātūrus, I desire to know where you are going to spend the winter.

2. In indirect questions **ne** and **num** are used without any perceptible difference of meaning:

Quaesivit, salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe; C. Fin. 2, 80, 97. Num quid vellem, rogāvit, he asked whether I wished anything; C. Att. 6, 3, 6.

3. **Si** is sometimes best rendered, to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc. In this sense it generally takes the Subjunctive, but it also occurs with the Indicative, especially in the poets:

Tē adeunt, si quid vis, they come to you to see if you wish anything; C. Fam. 3, 9, 2. Inspice, si possum donāta repōnere laevis, see whether I can cheerfully return your gifts.

4. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted as the direct object of the principal verb:

Quis tuum patrem, quis esset, audivit, who ever heard who your father was (heard of your father who he was)? C. Deiot. 11, 30. Nōstī Marcellum, quam tardus sit, you know how slow Marcellus is. Nōn mē pernōtū, quālis sim, you do not know what sort of a person I am; T. And. 508.

¹ Quoniam . . . nōn possent, since they could not, as they thought.

² Quōs . . . reliquisset, which he said his brother had left.

³ Here no question is directly asked; we are simply told that Epaminondas asked a question, but this statement involves the question, *salvusne est clipeus, is my shield safe?*

5. A Personal Passive construction, corresponding to this form of the active, is sometimes used, although indirect questions are in general either the objects of active verbs or the subjects of impersonal passive verbs:

Perspicuntur quam sint levēs,¹ *it is seen* (they are seen) *how inconstant they are*; C. Am. 17, 68.

6. Often in early Latin, as in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in the poets and in late writers, the Indicative is used in indirect questions, or at least in questions which would take the indirect form in the best prose:

Loquere tū, quid puerō factumst, *tell what has been done with the boy*; Pl. Truc. 757. Quin tū dic, quid est quod inē velis, *say, tell what it is, that you wish of me*; T. And. 45.

650. Indirect Double Questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (380).

1. They generally take in the first member **utrum**, or **ne**, and in the second **an**, sometimes **anne**, in the sense of *or*, and **necne**, or **an nōn** in the sense of *or not*:

Difficile dictū est, utrum timuerint, an dilēxerint, *it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved*. Quæritur, sintne dī necne sint, *the question is asked whether or not there are gods*; C. N. D. 1, 22, 61.

2. But they often omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second **an**, or **ne** in the sense of *or*, and **necne**, or **an nōn**, in the sense of *or not*:

Vivat an mortuus sit, quis cūrat, *who cares whether he is living or dead*? C. Ph. 13, 16, 38. Filius nepōsne fuerit parum liquet, *whether he was the son or the grandson is not at all clear*. Sapientia beatōs efficiat necne, quæstio est, *whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question*.

3. Other forms of indirect double questions, as those with **ne . . . ne, an . . . an**, etc., and those without any interrogative particles, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominēsne feraene, quærere cōstituit, *he determined to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts*; V. 1, 308. Velit, nōlit, scire difficile est, *it is difficult to find out whether he wishes it or does not wish it*.

4. **An**, in the sense of *whether not*, implying an affirmative, is used after expressions of doubt and uncertainty: **dubitō an, nesciō an, haud sciō an**, *I doubt whether not, I know not whether not = I am inclined to think*; **dubium est an, incertum est an**, *it is uncertain whether not = it is probable*:

¹ Observe that the passive construction corresponds to the active **perspicunt, eōs quam sint levēs**, *they perceive them, how inconstant they are*, a form entirely analogous to **nōstī Mārcellum, quam tardus sit**, given above.

Dubitō an Thrasybūlum primum omnium pōnam, *I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all* (i.e. I am inclined to think I should). **Haud sciō** an omnium praestantissimus, *I am inclined to think the most distinguished of all*; C. N. D. 2, 4, 11.

651. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished

1. From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Relative. — Ego quod sentiō loquar, *I shall say what (that which) I think.*

Interrogative. — Dicam quid intellegam, *I shall state what I understand.*

2. From clauses introduced by **nesciō quis** = **quidam**, *some one*, **nesciō quō modo** = **quōdam modō**, *in some way*, **mirum quantum**, *wonderfully much, wonderfully*, etc. These take the Indicative:

Ille nesciō quis loquitur, *here some one (I know not who) speaks.* Id mirum quantum profuit, *this profited, it is wonderful how much* (i.e. it wonderfully profited). Mirē quam delectat, *how wonderfully it delights.*

652. Clauses closely dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive are virtually Indirect clauses, and as such they generally take the Subjunctive:

Quam bellum fuit cōfiteri nescire quod nescirēs, *what a fine thing it was to admit not to know what you did not know*; C. N. D. 1, 30, 84. Recordatiōne nostrae amicitiae sic fruor ut beatē vixisse videar quia cum Scipione vixerim, *I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio.* Vereor nō, dum minuire velim labōrem, augeam, *I fear that while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it*; C. Leg. 1, 1, 12. Cum timidius ageret quam cōsueisset, *since he acted more timidly than had been his custom*; Caes. C. 1, 19, 3.

1. In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, the Subjunctive is used, when the dependent clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given, but the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated, and often when they are introduced by **dum**, especially in the poets and historians:

Militēs misit, ut eos qui fugerant persequerentur, *he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled* (i.e. the fugitives); Caes. 5, 10, 1. Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam vel in eis quos numquam vidimus, diligāmus, *so great is the power of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen.* Petam &

vōbīs ut mē, dum dē hīs disputō iudiciis, audiātis, *I shall ask of you that you hear me while I discuss these decisions*; C. Clu. 32, 89.

653. The directions already given for converting the Direct Discourse, **Ōrātiō Rēcta**, into the Indirect, **Ōrātiō Obliqua**, are further illustrated in the following passages from Caesar:

Direct Discourse.

Trānsiī Rhēnum nōn **meā** sponte sed **rogātus** et **arcessitus** ā Gallis; nōn sine magnā spē magnisque prae-miis domum propinquosque **reliqui**; **sēdēs** **habeō** in Galliā ab ipsis concessās, obsidēs ipsōrum voluntāte datōs; stipendium **capiō** iūre belli, quod victōrēs victis impōnere **consuerunt**. Nōn **ego** Gallis sed Galli **mihi** bellum **intulērunt**.

Ego prius in Galliam **vēnī** quam **populus Rōmānus**. Numquam ante hōc tempus **exercitus** populi Rōmāni Galliae prōvinciae finēs **ēgressus** est. Quid **tibi vīs**? Cūr in **meās** possessionēs **venīs**?

Eō **mihi** minus dubitātiōnis **datur** quod eās rēs quās **vōs**, lēgātī Helvētī, **commemorāstis** memoriā **teneō**, atque eō gravius **ferō** quō minus meritō populi Rōmāni **accidērunt**.

Quod si veteris contumēliae obli-visci **volō**, num etiam recentium infūriarum, quod **mē** invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim **temptāstis**, quod Aeduōs, quod Allobrogas **vexāstis**, memoriā dēpōnere **possum**?

Cum haec ita sint, tamen si ob-sidēs ā **vōbīs mihi** dabuntur uti ea quae **pollicēmini** factūrōs **intelle-gam**, **vōbiscum** pācem **faciam**.

Indirect Discourse.

Ariovistus respondit:

Trānsisse Rhēnum nōn **suā** sponte sed **rogātum** et **arcessitum** ā Gallis; nōn sine magnā spē māgnisque praemiis domum propinquosque **reliquisse**; **sēdēs** **habēre** in Galliā ab ipsis concessās, obsidēs ipsōrum voluntāte datōs; stipendium **capere** iūre belli quod victōrēs victis impōnere **consuerint**. Nōn **sēsē** Gallis sed Gallōs **sibi** bellum **intulisse**. **Sē** prius in Galliam **vēnisse** quam **populum Rōmānum**. Numquam ante hōc tempus **exercitum** populi Rōmāni Galliae prōvinciae finēs **ēgessum**. Quid **sibi vellet**? Cūr in **suās** possessionēs **veniret**? Caes. B. G. 1, 11.

Caesar ita respondit:

Eō **sibi** minus dubitātiōnis **darī** quod eās rēs quās lēgātī Helvētī **commemorāssent** memoriā **tenēret** atque eō gravius **ferre** quō minus meritō populi Rōmāni **accidissent**.

Quod si veteris contumēliae obli-visci **vellet**, num etiam recentium infūriarum, quod **eō** invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim **temptāssent**, quod Aeduōs, quod Allobrogas **vexāssent**, memoriā dēpōnere **posse**?

Cum ea ita sint, tamen si obsidēs **ab iis sibi** dentur, uti ea quae **polliceantur** factūrōs **intellegat**, **sēsē** cum iis pācem **esse facturum**; Caes. 1, 14.

USE OF PARTICLES

USE OF ADVERBS

654. Rule. — Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs :

Sapientēs semper fēliciter vivunt, *the wise always live happily*. Rēs haud sanē difficilis, *a thing not so very difficult*.

NOTE 1. — For Adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 495, 3; for Adverbs in place of adjectives, see 497, 4; for Adverbs with participles used substantively, see 636, 2.

NOTE 2. — **Sic** and **ita** mean *so, thus*. **Ita** has also a limiting sense, as in **ita . . . sī**, *so . . . if, only . . . if*. **Adēō** means *to such a degree or result*; **tam**, **tantopere**, *so much*. **Tam** is used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and **tantopere** with verbs.

655. The common negative particles are **nōn**, **nē**, **haud**.

1. **Nōn** is the usual negative; **nē** is used with the Optative and Volitive Subjunctive and with the Imperative, and **haud**, in **haud sciō an** and with adjectives and adverbs: **haud mirābile**, *not wonderful*; **haud aliter**, *not otherwise*. **Nē nōn** after **vidē** is often best rendered *whether*.

656. Two negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English :

Apertē adūlantem nēmō nōn videt, *every one recognizes the open flatterer*. Nec hōc ille nōn vidit, *he saw this* (nor did he not see this).

1. **Nōn** before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative :

nōn nēmō, <i>some one</i>	nōn nihil, <i>something</i>	nōn numquam, <i>sometimes</i>
nēmō nōn, <i>every one</i>	nihil nōn, <i>everything</i>	numquam nōn, <i>always</i>

2. After a general negative, **nē . . . quidem** gives emphasis to the negation, and **neque . . . neque**, **nēve . . . nēve**, and the like, repeat the negation distributively :

Numquam Scipiōnem nē minimā quidem rē offendī, *never have I displeased Scipio even in the smallest thing*; C. Am 27, 103. Nēmō unquam neque poēta neque orātor, qui quemquam meliōrem quam sē arbitrārētur, *no one was ever either a poet or an orator who thought any one better than himself*; C. At. 14, 20, 2.

3. **Nōn modo** (or **solum**) **nōn**, **sed nē . . . quidem** means *not only not, but not even*, and **nōn modo** (**solum**), **sed nē . . . quidem**, has the same

meaning when the verb standing in the second clause belongs also to the first :

Ego nōn modo tibi nōn irāscor, sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum, *I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even censure your act.* Adsentātiō nōn modo amico, sed nē liberō quidem digna est, *flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man*; C. AM. 24, 89.

4. **Neque** or **nec** is generally used instead of **et nōn** :

Neque mē quisquam cōgnōvit, *and no one recognized me.*

5. Instead of **et** with a negative pronoun or adverb, **neque** or **nec** with the corresponding affirmative is generally used : for **et nūllus**, **neque ūllus** ; for **et nēmō**, **neque quisquam** ; for **et numquam**, **neque umquam** :

Nec amētur ab ūllō, *and may he be loved by no one.*

NOTE. — For the use of Prepositions, see 420, 490.

USE OF COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

657. Copulative Conjunctions (315) meaning *and*, *also*, *and not*, unite similar constructions :

Castor et Pollūx, *Castor and Pollux.* Etiam atque etiam, *again and again.* Senātus populusque, *the senate and people.* Vēni Athēnās neque mē quisquam agnōvit, *I went to Athens, and no one recognized me*; C. Tusc. 5, 86, 104.

1. **Et** simply connects ; **que** implies a more intimate relationship ; **atque** and **ac** generally give prominence to what follows. **Neque** and **nec** have the force of **et nōn**. **Et** and **etiam** sometimes mean *even*.

NOTE. — **Atque** and **ac** generally mean *as*, *than*, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness : **tālis ac**, *such as* ; **aequē ac**, *equally as* ; **aliter atque**, *otherwise than*. See also 508, 5.

2. **Que** is an enclitic, and **ac** is used only before consonants.

3. **Etiam**, **quoque**, **adeō**, and the like, are sometimes associated with **et**, **atque**, **ac**, and **que**, and sometimes even supply their place. **Quoque** follows the word which it connects : **is quoque**, *he also*. **Etiam**, *also*, *further*, *even*, often adds a new circumstance.

4. Copulatives are sometimes used as correlatives : **et . . . et**, **que . . . que**, **et . . . que**, **que . . . et**, **que . . . atque**, **neque (nec) . . . neque (nec)**, *neither . . . nor* ; **neque (nec) . . . et (que)**, *not . . . but (and)* ; **et . . . neque (nec)**, *and not* :

Et praeiterita meminit et praesentibus potitur, *he both remembers the past and possesses the present*; C. Fin. 1, 19, 62. Mendācium neque dicēbat neque pati poterat, *he neither uttered a falsehood, nor was he able to endure one.*

NOTE 1. — **Modo . . . modo, cum . . . tum, tum . . . tum, now . . . now, not only . . . but also**, have the force of copulative correlatives. **Nōn modo (solum or tantum) . . . sed (verum) etiam**, sometimes have the same meaning; see 656, 3.

NOTE 2. — A series may begin with **primum** or **primō**, may be continued by **deinde** followed by **tum, postea, praeterea**, or some similar word, and may close with **dēnique** or **postrēmō**.¹ **Deinde** may be repeated several times between **primum** and **dēnique** or **postrēmō**.²

5. Between two words the copulative is generally expressed, though it is omitted between the names of consuls: **L. Domitiō, Ap. Claudiō cōsulibus**, in the consulship of *Lucius Domitius* and *Appius Claudius*.

6. **Asyndeton**. — Between several words the copulative is in general either repeated or omitted altogether. A union of coordinate words without the connective is called **Asyndeton**:

Stultitia et temeritas et iniustitia, jolly, rashness and injustice; et. Fin. 3, 11, 39. Cernimus, audimus, gustamus, olfacimus, tangimus; see see, hear, taste, smell, and touch; C. Div. 2, 3, 9.

NOTE. — **Que** may be used with the last member of a series even when the conjunction is omitted between the other words: **aegritudinēs, irae libidinēque**, *griefs, hatreds, and passions*

658. Disjunctive Conjunctions (315, 2) meaning *or, either . . . or*, offer a choice between two objects:

Tibi ego, aut tū mihi servus es, I am servant to you or you to me; Pl. Bac. 102. Sive retrāctābis sive properābis, whether you shall be reluctant or in haste.

1. **Aut** denotes a stronger antithesis than **vel**, and is used when one alternative excludes the other: **aut verum aut falsum**, *either true or false*.

2. **Vel**, or **vel potius**, or **rather**, and **vel etiam**, or **even**, are used to correct or strengthen a statement:

Post obitum vel potius excessum Rōmuli, after the death or rather departure of Romulus; C. R. P. 2, 12, 52.

659. Adversative Conjunctions (315, 3) denote Opposition or Contrast:

Cupio mē esse clēmentem, sed mē inertiae condemnō, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction; C. C. 1, 2, 4. Quod autem laudābile est, honestum est, but what is laudable is honorable.

1. **Sed** and **verum** generally mark a direct opposition; **autem** and **verō** only a transition; **at** emphasizes the opposition; **atquē** often introduces an objection; **cēterum** means *but still, as to the rest*; **tamen**, *yet*.

¹ For examples, see C. Fam. 15, 14; Div. 2, 56.

² C. Inv. 2, 49, has a series of ten members in which **primum** introduces the first member, **postrēmō** the last, and **deinde** each of the other eight.

2. **Autem** and **vērō** are postpositive, i.e. they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

660. Illative Conjunctions (**315, 4**) denote Inference:

Nihil obstat; ergō omnia prōsperē, igitur beātē, there is no opposition, therefore all things are moving prosperously, therefore happily; C. Tusc. 5, 18, 53.

1. **Igitur** is generally postpositive: **hīc igitur**, *this one therefore*.

661. Causal Conjunctions (**315, 5**) denote Cause:

Nēmō enim maeret suō incommodō, for no one mourns over his own misfortune; C. Tusc. 1, 13, 30.

1. **Enim** is postpositive; **etenim** and **namque** are stronger than **enim** and **nam**.

NOTE. — The use of Subordinate Conjunctions has been illustrated in the discussion of Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

RULES OF SYNTAX

662. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE—RULES OF AGREEMENT

1. The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative (**387**).
2. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (**388**).
3. A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case (**393**).
4. Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (**394**).
5. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person (**396**).

VOCATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE

6. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (**402**).
7. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (**404**).

8. Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing (410).

9. Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit two Accusatives, — one of the Person and one of the Thing (411).

10. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (414).

11. **Subject of Infinitive.** — The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (415).

12. **Accusative of Specification.** — In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application (416).

13. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (417).

14. The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with *ad* or *in*, but in the names of Towns by the Accusative alone (418).

15. The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (420).

16. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (421).

DATIVE

17. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (424).

18. Two Datives — the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which — are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (433).

19. Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them (434).

20. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative (436).

GENITIVE

21. A noun used as an Attributive or Predicate of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (439).

22. Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning (450).

23. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting — *memini*, *reminiscor*, and *obliscor* — regularly take the Objective Genitive when used of Persons, but either the Genitive or the Accusative when used of Things (454).

24. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing, and Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, Acquitting, take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, Charge, etc. (456).

25. *Misereor* and *miserescō* take the Objective Genitive; *misereor*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *pudet*, and *taedet* take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Object which produces the feeling (457).

ABLATIVE

I. Ablative Proper

26. The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition — *ā*, *ab*, *dē*, or *ex* — when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with *ab*, *dē*, *dis*, *sē*, or *ex* (461).

27. The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town, or is used after a verb meaning *to relieve*, *free*, *deprive*, *need*, or *be without* (462).

28. The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition, — *ā*, *ab*, *dē*, *ē*, or *ex* (467).

29. Comparatives without *quam* are followed by the Ablative (471).

II. Instrumental Ablative

30. The Ablative of Association is used (473):

(1) To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition *cum*.

(2) To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.

(3) To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance. It then takes the preposition *cum*, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.

31. The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used without a preposition (475).

32. The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (476).

33. **Means.** — **Special Uses.** — (1) The Ablative of Means is used with *utor*, *frutor*, *fungor*, *potior*, *vescor*, and their compounds (477).

(2) The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling, and with adjectives of Fullness: *abundō*, *redundō*, *adfluō*, etc.; *compleō*, *expleō*, *impleō*, *onero*, etc.; *onustus*, *refertus*, *plēnus*, etc.

(3) The Ablative of Means is used with *opus* and *ūsus*, often in connection with the Dative of the person.

34. Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives (478).

35. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used (479):

- (1) With Comparatives and Superlatives.
- (2) With verbs and other words implying Comparison.
- (3) To denote Intervals of Time or Space.

36. **Ablative of Specification.** — A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application (480).

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

37. The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition *in*, but in names of Towns by the Locative (483).

38. The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (486).

39. **Ablative Absolute.** — A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance (489).

40. The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (490).

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

41. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (523).

SYNTAX

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

42. Principal Tenses depend on Principal Tenses, and Historical on Historical (543).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

43. The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is **nōn** (552).

44. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is **nē** (558).

45. The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Willed. The negative is **nē**. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties (559):

(1) The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense.

(2) The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person, and generally best rendered by *let*; but see 560.

(3) The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions.

(4) The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued, and that he desires to be directed.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

46. In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third (560).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

47. **Substantive Clauses.**—The Subjunctive, generally with **ut** or **nē**, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose. Thus (564):

- (1) In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs.
- (2) In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates.
- (3) In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns.

48. **Final Clauses.** — The Subjunctive is used with *ut, nē, quō, quō minus, quōminus* to denote the purpose of the action (568).

49. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real (569).

50. **Consecutive Clauses.** — The Potential Subjunctive is used with *ut*, or *ut nōn*, to denote the Result of the action (570).

51. **Substantive Clauses.** — The Potential Subjunctive is often used with *ut* and *ut nōn* in Substantive Clauses as follows (571):

(1) In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning *it happens, it follows, etc.*, — *accidit, accēdit, evenit, fit, efficitur, fieri potest, fore, sequitur, etc*

(2) In Subject clauses with Predicate nouns and adjectives.

(3) In Object clauses depending upon *faciō, efficiō, etc.*, of the action of irrational forces.

(4) In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns.

CONDITIONAL, CONCESSIVE, AND CAUSAL CLAUSES

52. The Indicative in Conditional Sentences with *sī, nisi, nī, sīn*, assumes the supposed case as Real (574).

53. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with *sī, nisi, nī, sīn*, assumes the supposed case as Possible (576).

54. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with *sī, nisi, nī, sīn*, assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact (579).

55. Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by *ac sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī, as if, than if*, take the Subjunctive (584).

56. *Etsi* and *etiam sī*, when they mean *although*, introduce Adversative clauses and take the Indicative, but when they mean

even if, they introduce Conditional clauses, and accordingly take the same construction as *sī* (585).

57. (1) Clauses introduced by *quamquam* and *tametsi* contain admitted facts, and accordingly take the Indicative (586).

(2) Clauses introduced by *licet*, *quam-vis*, *ut*, or *nō*, are Concessive, and accordingly take the Concessive Subjunctive; see 559, 3.

58. The Jussive Subjunctive is used with *dum*, *modo*, *modo ut*, and *dummodo*, meaning *if only*, *provided*, in conditional clauses of desire (587).

59. Causal Clauses with *quod*, *quia*, *quoniam*, *quandō*, generally take (588):

(1) The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority.

(2) The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority.

RELATIVE CLAUSES AND QUIN CLAUSES

60. Clauses introduced by the Relative *quī*, or by Relative Adverbs, *ubi*, *unde*, *quō*, etc., take (589):

(1) The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause.

(2) The Subjunctive in all other cases.

61. (1) *Quin* in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences (594).

(2) *Quin* in Subordinate Clauses takes the Subjunctive.

CUM CLAUSES, TEMPORAL CLAUSES

62. In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive Clauses with *cum* take the Subjunctive (598).

63. Temporal Clauses introduced by *cum*, meaning *when*, *while*, *after*, take (600):

(1) The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses.

(2) The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses.

64. Temporal Clauses introduced by the particles **postquam**, **postea quam**, *after*, **pridie quam**, **postridie quam**, *on the day before*, *on the day after*; **ubi**, **ut**, **simul**, **simul atque**, *when*, *as*, *as soon as*. state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present (602).

65. I. Temporal clauses with **dum**, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, meaning *as long as*, take the Indicative (603).

II. Temporal clauses with **dum**, **dōneo**, and **quoad**, meaning *until*, take:

(1) The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact.

(2) The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived.

66. (1) In Temporal clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam** the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived (605).

(2) The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive.

INFINITIVE AND SUPINE

67. **Infinitive**.—Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (607).

68. The Supine in **um** is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose (633).

69. The Supine in **ū** is generally used as an Ablative, sometimes perhaps as a Dative (635).

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

70. **Principal Clauses**.—The Principal clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative (642).

71. **Subordinate Clauses**.—The Subordinate clauses of the Direct discourse on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive (643).

ADVERBS

72. Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (654).

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES

663. The Latin allows great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE

General Rules

664. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sol oriens et occidens diem noctemque cōficit, the sun by its rising and setting makes day and night. Scipio Africanus Carthāginem Numantiamque dēlevit, Scipio Africanus destroyed Carthage and Numantia; C. C. 4, 10, 21.

1. The Modifiers of the Subject either follow it or are grouped around it. Substantive modifiers generally follow it, while Adjective modifiers may stand either before or after it; see **671**, 1-5:

Clullius rēx moritur, Clullius the king dies. Veracē amicitiae sempiternae sunt, true friendships are enduring. Homīnēs industrii in Āsiā negōtiantur, active men are engaged in business in Asia.

2. In the arrangement of the modifiers of the Predicate the place directly before the verb is generally occupied by the Direct object, or by an Adverb which directly qualifies the action:

Fortiter bellum gesserat, he had waged war valiantly; Flac. 39, 98. Rem pūblicam felicissimē gesserunt, they administered the republic most successfully; Caes. C. 7, 7.

3. In the arrangement of Objects the Indirect object generally stands before the Direct:

Dārēus Scythīs bellum inferre dēcrēvit, Darius decided to make war upon the Scythians.

4. Expressions of Place, Time, or Means generally stand before the other modifiers of the verb, often even before the subject:

Athēniēnsēs locō idoneō castra fēcērunt, the Athenians pitched their camp in a suitable place. Proximō diē Caesar ē castris utrisque cōpiās suās ēdūxit,

the next day Caesar led out his forces from both his camps; Caes. 1, 50. Marius commeātū nāvēs onerat, Marius loads his vessels with supplies.

665. Emphasis and the relative importance of different parts of the sentence often cause a departure from the Grammatical arrangement just described. Thus,

1. Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Catōnem quis nostrōrum orātōrum legit, *who among our orators reads Cato?* C. Brut. 17, 65. Numitōri Remus deditur, *Remus is delivered to Numitor.*

2. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nōbis nōn satisfacit ipse Dēmōsthenēs, *even Demosthenes does not satisfy us; cf. C. Or. 29, 104.*

3. In any phrase within a sentence the emphatic word stands first:

Mihī ūnī cōservātae rei publicae grātulātiōnem dēcrēvistis, *to me alone you have decreed a thanksgiving for having preserved the republic; C. C. 4, 10, 20*

4. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its limiting Genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by separation:

Obligātiōnēs nōn nunquam incidunt necessariāe, *sometimes necessary reproofs occur; C. Off. 1, 38, 136.*

NOTE. — A word is sometimes made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound or periphrastic tense:

Cōsuētūdō imitanda medicōrum est, *the custom of physicians should be imitated; C. Off. 1, 24, 83.*

666. Two groups of words may be made prominent and emphatic either by Anaphora or by Chiasmus.

1. **Anaphora.** — Here the order of words in the second group is identical with that in the first:

Mē cuncta Italia, mē ūniversa civitās cōsulem dēclārāvit, *me all Italy, me the whole state proclaimed consul; C. Pis. 1, 3.*

2. **Chiasmus.** — Here the order of words in the first group is reversed in the second:

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, *the imperishable soul moves the perishable body; C. R. P. 6, 24. Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, enough eloquence, but little wisdom.*

667. Kindred Words. — Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other.

Ad senem senex dē senectūte scripsit, *I, an old man, wrote to an old man about old age*; C. Am. 1.

668. A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed

1. Generally before or after both :

Græcis et litteris et doctōribus, *by means of Greek literature and Greek teachers*; C. Tusc. 1, 1. Et belli et pācis artibus, *by the arts both of war and of peace*; L. 1, 21.

NOTE. — But a Genitive, or an adjective, following two nouns, more frequently qualifies only the latter :

Percunctātiō ac dēnūtiātiō belli, *the inquiry and the declaration of war*.

2. Sometimes directly after the first, before the conjunction :

Honōris certāmen et glōriæ, *a struggle for honor and glory*; C. Am. 10.

669. Moreover, the context often has some share in determining the arrangement of words in the sentence. Thus,

1. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the preceding sentence generally stands at or near the beginning of its own sentence :

In his castris Albānus rēx moritur, *in this camp the Alban king dies*.

NOTE. — In his castris refers back to **castra** in the preceding sentence.

2. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the following sentence stands at or near the end of its sentence :

Apud Helvētios longē nōbilissimus fuit Orgetorix, *among the Helvetii by far the highest of the nobles was Orgetorix*. Is coniurātiōnem nōbilitātis fecit, *he formed a conspiracy of the nobles*.

670. Euphony and Rhythm. — The best Latin writers in the arrangement of words regard sound as well as meaning. They aim at variety in the length, sound, and ending of successive words and pay special attention to the manner in which the sentence closes. A word of two or more syllables with a clear and full sound is generally selected for this place :

Publius Africānus, Carthāgine dēletā, Siculōrum urbēs signis monumentisque pulcherrimis exornāvit, *Publius Africanus, having destroyed Carthage, adorned the cities of the Sicilians with the most beautiful statues and monuments*; C. Ver. 2, 2, 8.

Special Rules

671. The Substantive Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it, but Adjective Modifiers may stand either before or after it :

Pausaniās in aedem Minervae cōfūgit, Pausanias fled into the temple of Minerva ; N. 4, 5, 2. Ūsus magister est optimus, experience is the best teacher. Tuscus ager Rōmānō adiacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman.

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, generally stand before the noun :

Catōnis orātiōēs, Cato's orations ; Xenophōntis librī, Xenophon's books.

2. In a few expressions, the Genitive has a definite position before its noun and in a few others a definite position after it :

Magister equitum, the master of the horse ; tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the people ; tribūnus militum, tribune of the soldiers, etc. ; senātūs auctoritās, the authority of the senate ; senātūs cōsultum, a decree of the senate.

3. In certain expressions the Adjective regularly follows.

Civis Rōmānus, a Roman citizen ; populus Rōmānus, the Roman people ; pontifex mīximus, the chief priest ; dī immortāles, the immortal gods ; genus hūmānum, the human race ; iūs civile, civil law, etc.

4. When a noun is modified by an Adjective and a Genitive, the usual order is Adjective — Genitive — Noun :

Omnēs Graeciae civitatēs, all the states of Greece.

5. An Adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition and sometimes by two or more words :

Māgnō cum periculō, with great peril ; mīxima post hominum memoriā classis, the largest fleet in the memory of man ; N. 2, 5.

672. Modifiers of Adjectives. — Adverbial modifiers generally stand before adjectives while Objective modifiers more commonly follow them :

Expectātiō valdē magna, a very great expectation. Appetentēs glōriae atque avidi laudis, eager for glory and desirous of praise.

673. The Modifiers of verbs generally stand before them (664) :

Mors propter brevitatē vitae numquam longē abest, death is never far distant in consequence of the shortness of life ; cf. C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91.

NOTE. — When the verb stands at the beginning of the sentence the modifiers of course follow it and may be separated from it.

Silent lēgēs inter arma, laws are silent in war ; C. Mil. 4, 10.

674. Modifiers of adverbs generally stand before them, but a Dative depending on an adverb usually follows it:

Illud valdē graviter tulērunt, they bore this with great displeasure. Congruenter nātūrae vivit, he lives in harmony with nature.

675. Pronouns. — Possessives generally follow the nouns to which they belong, but other pronominal adjectives generally precede their nouns, Demonstratives and Interrogatives regularly:

Cōpiās suās dīvisit, he divided his forces. Cūstōs hūius urbis, the guardian of this city. In quā urbe vivimus, in what sort of a city are we living?

1. **Ille** in the sense of *well-known* usually follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective: *Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea*, but *Māgnus ille Alexander, that famous Alexander the Great*.

2. Pronouns are often grouped together, especially **quisque** with **suus** or **sui**:

Per sē quisque sibi cārus est, every one is by his own nature dear to himself; C. Am. 21, 80.

676. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but **tenus** and **versus** follow their cases:

Taurō tenus, as far as Taurus. Narbōnem versus, towards Narbo.

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Itāliam contrā, over against Italy; quibus dē, in regard to which; hunc post, after him. See also 175, 7; 182, 2.

2. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations **per** is usually separated from its case:

Ad eārum rerum facultātem, to a supply of those things. Ad bene beatēque vivendum, for living well and happily. Per ego hās lacrimās tē orō, I implore you by these tears; V. 4, 314.

677. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses: but **autem**, **enim**, **quidem**, **quoque**, **vērō**, and generally **igitur**, follow some other word:

Si haec civitas est, if this is a state. Hi qui audiunt, those who hear. Ipse autem omnia vidēbat, but he himself saw everything. See also 659, 2, and 660, 1.

1. Conjunctions and relatives may follow emphatic words:

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Trōiae qui primus ab orīs vēnit, who came first from the shores of Troy; V. 1, 1.

2. **Que, ve, ne**, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word ; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word :

In forōque, *and in the forum*. Inter nōsque, *and among us*.

678. Nōn, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word ; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense :

Homō nōn probātissimus, *a man by no means the most approved*. Nōn fuit Juppiter metuendus, *Jupiter was not to be feared*. Pecūnia solūta nōn est, *the money has not been paid*.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent :

Nūlla vidēbātur aptior persōna, *there seemed to be no more fitting character*. Nihil est melius, *nothing is better*.

679. Inquam, sometimes **aiō**, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted :

Nihil habeo, inquit, quod accūsem senectūtem, *I have nothing, said he, of which to accuse old age* ; C. Sen. 5, 13.

680. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word :

Vōs, Quirītēs, in vestra tēcta discēdite, *you, Romans, retire to your homes*.

ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES

681. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (**315, 1**) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English :

Sol ruit et montēs umbrantur, *the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded*. Gyges ā nullō vidēbātur, ipse autem omnia vidēbat, *Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things*.

682. A clause used as the Subject of a compound sentence (**386, 2**) generally stands at the Beginning of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the End :

Quid diēs ferat incertum est, *what a day may bring forth is uncertain*. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse, *the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men*.

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence ; see 664.
2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect on the arrangement of clauses as on the arrangement of words ; see 665, 670.

683. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of compound sentences admit three different arrangements.

1. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence :

Ariovistus, ex equis ut colloquerentur, postulāvit, Ariovistus demanded that they should converse on horseback ; Caes. 1, 43. *Libenter hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt, men willingly believe that which they wish ;* Caes. 3, 18, 6.

2. They are often placed before the principal clause :

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is.

NOTE. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence Causal, Temporal, Conditional, and Concessive clauses often precede the principal clause, and in sentences composed of correlative clauses with *is . . . quī, tālis . . . quālis, tantus . . . quantus, tum . . . cum, ita . . . ut*, etc., the relative member, i.e. the clause with *quī, quālis, quantus, cum, ut*, etc., generally precedes.

3. They sometimes follow the principal clause :

Enītiur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Sōl efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom.

NOTE. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of Purpose and Result generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

684. When either the subject or the object is the same both in the Principal and in the Subordinate clause, it usually stands at or near the beginning of the sentence and is followed by the subordinate clause :

Hostēs ubi primum nostrōs equitēs cōspexērunt, celeriter nostrōs perturbāverunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout ; Caes. 4, 12. *Illa ut potui tulī, the se things I endured as (well as) I could.*

1. When the object of the principal clause is the same as the subject of the subordinate clause, it usually stands at the beginning of the sentence :

Vōs moneō ut fortī animō sitis, I counsel you to be of a courageous spirit.

685. Latin Periods. — A carefully elaborated Latin sentence consisting of one or more subordinate clauses inserted in the principal clause, or placed before it, and so combined with it and with each other as to make one complete organic whole, is a Latin Period:

Ut quod turpe est, id quamvis occultetur, tamen honestum fieri nullo modo potest; sic quod honestum non est, id utile ut sit effici non potest. *as that which is base, although it may be concealed, can in no way be made honorable, so that which is not honorable can not by any possibility be made useful.*
C. OR. 3, 19, 78.

Ut saepe hominēs aegri morbo gravi, cum aestū febrīque iactantur, si aquam gelidam bibērunt, primō relevāri videntur, deinde multō gravius vehementiusque afficiantur, sic hic morbus quī est in rē publicā, relevātus istius poenā, vehementius vivis reliquis ingravesceat, *as men ill with a severe disease if they take cold water when they are tossed with heat and fever, often seem at first to be relieved but afterwards are much more grievously and violently distressed, so this disease which is in the republic, though alleviated by the punishment of this one, will gain greater strength while the rest are alive;* C. C. 1, 13, 31.

NOTE 1. — The examples under 683, 1, and the first example under 684, are also short and simple illustrations of the periodic structure, so popular with Latin writers.

NOTE 2. — For further illustration of the Latin Period, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, 12, *sed quoniam . . . providēre*; the Oration for the Poet Archias, 1, *quod si haec . . . debemus*; also Livy, 1, 6, *Nunitor inter primum tumultum . . . ostendit*.



PART V.—PROSODY

686. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

QUANTITY

687. A syllable is long if it contains a diphthong or a long vowel, or is the result of contraction: *haec, dicō, nīl.*

1. *Prae* in composition is usually short before a vowel: *praeacūtus*.

688. A syllable is long if its vowel is followed in the same word by a double consonant, or any two consonants except a mute and a liquid¹: **dux, servus, sunt.**

1. A syllable is also long before two consonants, even if only one of them belongs to that word; and in the thesis (725) of a foot it is generally long before a double consonant or two single consonants at the beginning of the following word.

NOTE 1. — The aspirate **h** never affects the quantity of a syllable.

NOTE 2. — In the early poets a short final syllable ending in **s** often remains short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes, also, short final syllables ending in other consonants remain short in that situation.

2. A syllable is long before **i** consonant, except in the compounds of **fugum**. Even in the compounds of **iaciō** with monosyllabic prepositions the first syllable is long, although **i** consonant is suppressed in writing: **abiciō, adiciō.**

3. In the early poets many syllables, long by position in the Augustan poets, are sometimes short, as the first syllable of **ecce, ille, immō, nempe, omnis, quippe.**

NOTE. — In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: **cycnus, Tecmēssa.**

689. A syllable is short if its vowel is followed in the same word by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate **h**: **diēs, viae, nihil.** But a few exceptions occur.

1. For **ā** before another vowel, see 79, 3, and note proper names in **āius**: **aulāi, Gāius.**

2. For **ē** or **ě** before a vowel, see 134: **diēi, fidēi, rēi, spēi,** and note **ēheu** and **Rhēa.**

3. For **i** or **ī** before a vowel, see 93, 4, 179, and 296: **fiam, fībam,** but **ferī**; **illius, totius,** but **alterius.** Note also **dīus, Dīāna.**

NOTE. — In Greek words, vowels are often long before vowels because long in the original: **Mēdēa, āēr, Aenēās, Trōes.**

690. A syllable is common in quantity if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: **agri, patris.**

¹ Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by position if the vowel is short. For the hidden quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 749.

1. A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: **ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.**

2. In Plautus and Terence a syllable, not in a compound, is short before a mute and a liquid if its vowel is short.

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES

691. Monosyllables are generally long: **dā, sī, dō, dōs, pēs, sis, bōs, pār, sōl.** But note the following exceptions:

1. Enclitics: **que, ve. ne. ce, te, pae, pte.**
2. Monosyllables in **b, d, l, m, t**: **ab, ad, fel, sum, et**; except **sāl, sōl.**
3. **An, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os, per, ter, quis, vir, vas,** and **hic** and **hōc** in the Nominative and Accusative.

692. In words of more than one syllable

1. The final vowels **i, o, and u** are long; **a, e, and y**, short: **audī, servō, fructū; via, mare miy.**

2. Final syllables in **c** are long; in **t, l, m, n, r, t**, short: **illūc; illud, cōnsul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.**

NOTE. — **Dōnec** and **hēn** are exceptions; also final syllables in **n** and **r** in many Greek words.

3. The final syllables **as, es, and os** are long; **is, us, ys**, short: **amās, nūbēs, servōs; avis, bonus, chlamys.**

NOTE 1. — Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings **ā, ē, āl, ār, ōr, is, ūs, āt, ēt, it**, often stand in place of the later endings **a, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it**. Some of these are retained by Terence, and occasionally by the Augustan poets.

NOTE 2. — Plautus and Terence often shorten final syllables after an accented short syllable: **ama, dedī, domi, viro, pedes.**

NOTE 3. — In Plautus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not necessarily affect the quantity of the syllable: **il** in **ille**, **mm** in **immō.**

693. **I** final, usually long, is short in **nisi, quasi**; common in **mihī, tibi, sibi, ibī, ubī**; and short or common in a few Greek words.

694. **O** final, usually long, is short in **duo, ego, eho, cedo, cito, ilico, modo** and its compounds, and sometimes in nouns of the Third Declension and in verbs, though rarely in the best poets.

695. *A* final, usually short, is long

1. In the Ablative: *mēnsā, bonā, illā.*
2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in *ās*: *Aenēā, Pallā.*
3. In certain numerals: *trigintā, quadrāgintā,* etc.
4. In verbs and particles: *amā, cūrā; circā, iuxtā, antea, frustra;* except *ita, quia, hēia,* and *puta* used adverbially.

696. *E* final, usually short, is long

1. In the First and Fifth Declensions, and in Greek plurals of the Third Declension: *epitomē; diē; tempē.* Hence in *hodiē, pridie, postridie, quārē.*
2. In the singular Imperative Active of the Second Conjugation: *monē, docē.* But *e* is sometimes short in *cavē, vidē,* etc., and in the comic poets many dissyllabic Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as *habe, iube, mane, move, tace, tene,* etc.
3. In *ferē, fermē, dhē,* and in adverbs from adjectives of the Second Declension: *doctē, rectē;* except *bene, male,* and sometimes in the early poets *māxumē, probē, temerē.*

697. *As* final, usually long, is short in a few forms, chiefly Greek: *anas, Arcas, lampas; Arcadas, hērōas.*

698. *Es* final, usually long, is short

1. In the Nominative singular of the Third Declension with short increment (702) in the Genitive: *mīles,* sometimes *mīlē* in Plautus, *obses, interpres;* except *abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs,* and compounds of *pēs,* as *bipēs.*
2. In *penes* and the compounds of *es,* as *ades, potes.*
3. In a few Greek forms: *Arcades, Trōades, Hippomanes.*

699. *Os* final, usually long, is short in *compos, impos, exos,* and a few Greek words: *Dēlos, melos.*

700. *Is* final, usually short, is long

1. In plural cases: *mēnsis, vōbīs.* Hence *forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.*
2. In Nominatives of the Third Declension, increasing long in the Genitive: *Quirīs, Salamīs.*
3. In the singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation: *audīs.*
4. In the singular Present Subjunctive Active: *possīs, vellīs, nōllīs.*
5. Sometimes in the singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: *amāverīs, docuerīs.*
6. In early Latin sometimes in *pulvis, cinis, and sanguis.*

NOTE. — *Māvis, quivīs, and utervīs* retain the quantity of *vīs.*

701. *Us* final, usually short, is long (1) in Nominatives of the Third Declension increasing long in the Genitive: *virtūs, tellūs*, but *palus* occurs in Horace; (2) in the Fourth Declension, in the Genitive singular, and in the plural: *fructūs*; and (3) generally in Greek words ending long in the original: *Panthūs, tripūs*.

QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS

702. A word is said to increase in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative singular, and to have as many increments of declension as it has additional syllables: *sermō, sermōnis, sermōnibus*.¹

703. A verb is said to increase in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many increments of conjugation as it has additional syllables: *amās, amātis, amābātis*.²

704. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the First increment, and those following this are called successively the Second, Third, and Fourth increments.³

Increments of Declension

705. In the Increments of Declension, *a* and *o* are long; *e, i, u,* and *y*, short:⁴ *aetās, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerōrum; miles, militis; fulgur, fulguris; chlamys, chlamydīs*.

NOTE. — The quantity in the increments of Greek nouns is best learned from the dictionary. It is usually that of the original Greek.

706. *A*, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of masculines in *al* and *ar*: *Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Caesaris*; (2) of nouns in *s* preceded by a consonant: *daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis*; and (3) of *lār, nectar, pār; mās, vas; sāl, fax*, and a few other words.

¹ *Sermōnis*, having one syllable more than *sermō*, has one increment, while *sermōnibus* has two increments.

² *Amātis* has one increment, *amābātis* two.

³ In *ser-mōn-i-bus*, the first increment is *mōn*, the second *i*; and in *mon-u-e-rā-mus*, the first is *u*, the second *e*, the third *rā*.

⁴ *Y* occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in *yn*.

707. O, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of neuters in the Third Declension: **aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis**; (2) of nouns in **s** preceded by a consonant: (**ops**), **opis**; and (3) of **arbor, bōs, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor**.

708. E, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of the Fifth Declension: **diēi, diērum, rēbus**; but note **fidēi, rēi, spēi**; and (2) of **vēr, hērēs, locuplēs, mercēs, quiēs, inquiēs, requiēs, plēbs, lēx, rēx**.

709. I, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of words in **īx**: **rādīx, rādīcis**; and (2) of **dīs, lis, vīs, Quirīs, Samnīs**.

710. U, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of nouns in **ūs**: **iūs, iūris; salūs, salūtis; palūs, palūdis**; and (2) of **fūr, (frūx), frūgis, lūx**.

Increments of Conjugation

711. In the Increments of Conjugation (**703**) **a, e, and o** are long; **i and u** short: **amāmus, amēmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus**.

1. **A**, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of the verb **dō, dare**: **dabam, circumdabam**.

2. **E**, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is generally short before **r**: **amāveram, amāverō; regere, regeris**; see also **218-221**.

3. **I**, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is generally long, except before a vowel, in the first increment of the Fourth Conjugation and of those verbs of the Third Conjugation which follow the analogy of the fourth: **audire, audīvī, audītum; cupīvī, cupīverat, cupītus**.

4. Note also (1) **sīmus, sītis; velīmus, velītis; nōlīte, nōlītō, nōlītōte**; (2) the different persons of **ībam, ībō**, from **eō**; and (3) the endings **rīmus** and **rītis** of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: **amāverīmus, amāverītis**.

5. **U**, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the participial system: **volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus**.

QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS

712. Note the quantity of the following derivative endings:

1. **ābrum, ācrum, ātrum**:

flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

2. **ēdō, idō, tūdō; āgō, īgō, ūgō**:

dulcēdō, cupidō, solitūdō; vorāgō, origō, aerūgō.

3. **ēla, ēle ; ālis, ēlis, ūlis :**

querēla, ovile ; mortālis, fidēlis, curālis.

4. **ānus, ēnus, īnus, ōnus, ūnus ; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna :**

urbānus, egēnus, marīnus, patrōnus, tribūnus ; membrāna, habēna, annōna, lacūna.

5. **āris, ōsus ; āvus, īvus, tīvus :**

salūtāris, annōsus ; octāvus, aestīvus, tempestīvus.

6. **ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus.**

ālātus, facētus, turritus, aegrōtus, cornūtus.

7. **ēnī, īnī, ōnī** — in Distributives :

septēnī, quīnī, octōnī

8. **adēs, iadēs, idēs** — in Patronymies :

Aenēadēs, Lārtiadēs, Tantalidēs.

9. **olus, ola olum ; ulus, ula, ulum ; culus, cula, culum** — in Diminutives :

filīolus, filiola, ātriolum ; hortulus, virgola, cypidulum ; flosculus, particula, mūnusculum.

QUANTITY OF STEM SYLLABLES

713. All simple verbs in **iō** of the Third Conjugation have the stem syllable ¹ short : **capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiō.**

714. Most verbs which form the Perfect in **uī**, except inceptives, have the stem syllable short : **domō, secō, habeo, moneō, alō, colō.**

715. Dissyllabic Perfects, Supines, and Perfect Participles generally have the first syllable long, unless short by position : **iuuō, iūvi, iūtum ; foveō, fōvi, fōtum.**

1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines or Perfect Participles have the first syllable short :

Bibi, dedi, fidi, liqui,² scidi, steti, stiti, tuli ; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.

716. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects generally have the first two syllables short unless the second is long by position : **cadō, cecidi ; canō, cecini ; currō, cucurri ;** but note **caedō, cecidi.**

¹ That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

² Liqui from liqueō. Inquō has liqui.

717. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem syllables unchanged unless affected by position: **avis, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levissimus.**

718. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem syllables of their primitives: **bonus, bonitās; animus, animōsus; cīvis, cīvīcus.**

1. But, remember that many roots have a strong form and a weak form (320, 1):

dicō	dīcō	odium	ōdī
dux, ducis	dūcō	regō	rēx, rēgis
fidēs	fīdō	sedeō	sēdēs
homō	hūmānus	tegō	tēgula
rego	lēx, lēgis	vocō	vōx, vōcis

719. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements; **ante-ferō, dē-dūcō, prō-dūcō**; but note **dēierō** (dē, iūrō).

1. **Prō** is generally shortened before **f** followed by a vowel:

Profānus, profārī, proficiātor, profiteor, profugiō, profugus, profundus; but note **prōferō** and **prōficiō**.

NOTE.—**Prō** is shortened in **procella, procul**, and in a few other words.

2. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with **faciō** or **fīō**, **e** is generally short: **calefaciō, calefīō, lābefaciō, patefaciō.**

3. **I** is usually long in the first part of the compounds of **diēs**: **merīdiēs, prīdiēs, postrīdiēs, oottīdiēs, trīduum.**

4. **Hodiē, quasi, quoque, and siquidem** have the first syllable short.

VERSIFICATION



GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT


720. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.¹


¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of Accented and Unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of Long and Short syllables. The rhythmic accent, or ictus (724), in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me	not', in	mourn'-ful	num'-bers,
Life' is	but' an	emp'-ty	dream'.
Trū'-di-	tur' di-	ēs' di-	ē'.
At' fi-	dēs' et	in'-ge-	nī'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent, or ictus, falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables.

1. In quantity or time the unit of measure, called a Time or Mora, is a short syllable indicated either by a curve \cup or by an eighth note in music. . A long syllable has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign — , or by a quarter note in music, .

2. **Triseme.**—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of three short syllables, indicated by the sign — , or .



3. **Tetraseme.**—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of four short syllables, indicated by — , or .

4. A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have approximately the value of a short syllable, and is marked by the sign $>$; and two short syllables sometimes seem to have approximately the value of one, and are marked $\cup\cup$. Syllables thus used are said to have Irrational time.




5. The final syllable of a verse, often called **syllaba anceps** (*doubtful syllable*), may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.

721. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are

1. FEET OF FOUR TIMES OR FOUR MORAE

Dactyl	<i>one long and two short</i>	$\text{—} \cup \cup$		<i>carmina</i>
Spondee	<i>two long syllables</i>	$\text{—} \text{—}$		<i>légēs</i>

2. FEET OF THREE TIMES OR THREE MORAE

Trochee ¹	<i>one long and one short</i>	$\text{—} \cup$		<i>légis</i>
Iambus	<i>one short and one long</i>	$\cup \text{—}$		<i>parēns</i>
Tribrach	<i>three short syllables</i>	$\cup \cup \cup$		<i>dominus</i>

NOTE 1. — To these may be added the following :

Anapaest	$\cup \cup \text{—}$	<i>bonitās</i>	Ditrochee	$\text{—} \cup \text{—} \cup$	<i>civitātis</i>
Proceleusmatic	$\cup \cup \cup \cup$	<i>calefacit</i>	Greater Ionic	$\text{—} \text{—} \cup \cup$	<i>sententia</i>
Bacchius	$\cup \text{—} \text{—}$	<i>dolōrēs</i>	Lesser Ionic	$\cup \cup \text{—} \text{—}$	<i>adulēscēns</i>
Cretic	$\text{—} \cup \text{—}$	<i>millēs</i>	Choriambus	$\text{—} \cup \cup \text{—}$	<i>impatiens</i> ²
Ditambus	$\cup \text{—} \cup \text{—}$	<i>amoenitās</i>			

NOTE 2. — A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four; etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i.e. a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half; etc.

¹ Sometimes called Choree.

² Most feet of four syllables are only compounds of dissyllabic feet. Thus the Ditambus is a double Iambus; the Ditrochee, a double Trochee; the Choriambus, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

722. Metrical Equivalents. — A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

NOTE. — Thus the dactyl becomes a spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the spondee becomes a dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the dactyl, the spondee, and the anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the iambus, the trochee, and the tribrach are metrical equivalents.

723. In certain kinds of verse admitting irrational time (720, 4), spondees, dactyls, and anapaests are shortened so that they have approximately the time of a trochee or of an iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.

1. A spondee used for a trochee is called an Irrational Trochee, and is marked — >.

2. A spondee used for an iambus is called an Irrational Iambus, and is marked > —.

3. A dactyl used for a trochee is called a Cyclic Dactyl, and is marked ~ ~ ~ or — ~ ~.

4. An anapaest used for an iambus is called a Cyclic Anapaest, and is marked ~ ~ ~ or ~ ~ —.

724. Ictus, or Rhythmic Accent. — As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables have a special prominence called Rhythmic Accent, or Ictus.

1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.

2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.

NOTE 1. — Thus the spondee, when used for the dactyl, takes the ictus of the dactyl, i.e. on the first syllable; but when used for the anapaest, it takes the ictus of the anapaest, i.e. on the last syllable.

NOTE 2. — When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of a long syllable in the thesis, the ictus is marked upon the first of these syllables. Thus a tribrach used for an iambus is marked ~ ~ ~.

725. Thesis and Arsis. — In every foot the syllable which has the ictus is called the Thesis (*putting down*), and the rest of the foot is called the Arsis (*raising*).¹

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms *ἄρσις* and *θέσις* of *raising* and *putting down* the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the

726. Rhythmic Series.—A group of feet forming a single rhythmic unit by the predominance of one ictus over the rest is called a Rhythmic Series, or Colon.

1. A Rhythmic Series may consist of two, three, four, five, or six feet, but never of more than six.

727. Verses.—A verse consists of a single rhythmic series, or of a group of two or three series so united as to form one distinct and separate whole, usually written as a single line of poetry. It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

NOTE 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot, because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

NOTE 2.—A verse consisting of a single rhythmic series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.

NOTE 3.—Two verses sometime unite and form a compound verse (746).

728. Caesura or Caesural Pause.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which separates these parts is called

1. A Caesura,¹ or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot (736).

2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot (736, 2 and 3).

NOTE 1.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diaeresis.

NOTE 2.—The term caesura is often made to include both the Caesura proper and the Diaeresis. The chief pause in the line is often termed the Principal Caesura or simply the Caesura.

729. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus

1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).

Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to *raising* and *lowering* the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. But most scholars at present deem it advisable to restore the terms to their original meaning, though some still prefer to use them in the sense in which the Roman grammarians employed them.

¹ Caesura (from *caedō*, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

PROSODY

2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

NOTE 1. — A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic ; with a Trochee, Trochaic ; with an Iambus, Iambic ; etc.

NOTE 2. — A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer ; of two, Dimeter ; of three, Trimeter ; of four, Tetrameter ; of five, Pentameter ; of six, Hexameter.

NOTE 3. — A verse which closes with a Complete measure is called Acatalectic ; with an Incomplete measure, Catalectic ; with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.

NOTE 4. — The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

NOTE 5. — A Catalectic verse is said to be Catalectic *in syllabam*, *in disyllabum*, *in trisyllabum*, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

NOTE 6. — Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus, Hexameter (verse of six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (verse of six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

3. In reading catalectic verses, a pause is introduced in place of the lacking syllable or syllables.

4. A Pause or Rest equal to a short syllable is marked \wedge ; a Pause equal to a long syllable is marked $\overline{\wedge}$.

730. Verses and stanzas are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets. Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus ; Archilochian, from Archilochus ; Sapphic, from Sapphō ; Glyconic from Glycōn, etc.

NOTE. — Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they are applied : as Heroic, applied to heroic subjects ; Paroemiac, to proverbs, etc.

731. A Stanza or Strophe is a combination of two or more verses into one metrical whole ; see 747, 1, 2, etc.

NOTE. — A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich ; of three, a Tristich ; of four, a Tetrastich.

732. Rhythmical Reading. — In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

733. Figures of Prosody. — The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.

1. **Elision.**—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final *m* with the preceding vowel, is generally elided¹ before a word beginning with a vowel or with *h*:

Mōstrum horrendum infōrmē ingēns. Verg.

NOTE 1.—Final *e* in the interrogative *nē* is sometimes dropped before a consonant: *Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās?* Verg.

NOTE 2.—In the early poets, final *s* before a consonant is often so far suppressed that it fails to make position with the following consonant: *ex omnibus rēbus.*

NOTE 3.—The elision of a final *m* with the preceding vowel is sometimes called *Ecthipsis* or *Synalepha*.

NOTE 4.—The elision of a final vowel or diphthong is sometimes called *Synalepha*, or, if at the end of a line, *Synapheia*.

2. **Hiatus.**—A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel, especially in the thesis of a foot. It is regularly retained in the interjections *ō*, *heu*, and *prō*.

NOTE.—In the arsis, and in early Latin even in the thesis, a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg. *Aen.* 3, 211; 6, 607.

3. **Synizesis.**—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one: *dēinde*, *iīdem*, *iīsdem*.

NOTE 1.—In the different parts of *dēsum*, *ee* is generally pronounced as one syllable: *dēesse*, *dēest*, *dēerat*, etc.; so *ei* in the verb *anteēō*: *antēire*, *antēirem*.

NOTE 2.—*I* and *u* before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of *y* and *w*. Thus *ariete* becomes *aryete*; *tenuēs* becomes *tenwēs*.

NOTE 3.—In Plautus and Terence, Synizesis is used with great freedom.

NOTE 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called *Synaeresis*.

4. **Dialysis.**—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes kept distinct: *aurāī* for *aurae*, *soluendus* for *solvendus*.

NOTE 1.—Dialysis properly means the Resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by dialysis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

NOTE 2.—Dialysis is sometimes called *Diaeresis*.

¹ That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:

"The eternal years of God are hers."

5. **Diastole.**—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the thesis of a foot: **Prīamidēs** for **Priamidēs**.

6. **Systole.**—A syllable usually long is sometimes short: **tulerunt** for **tulērunt**.

7. **Syncope.**—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 720, 3.

NOTE.—In reading syncopated verses, the long syllable must of course be allowed to occupy the time of an entire foot.

VARIETIES OF VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

734. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

735. The Dactylic Hexameter¹ consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (720, 5).² The scheme is,³

∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪.⁴

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg.

Arma vi- | runque ca- | nō Trō- | iac qui | primus ab | ōris. Verg.

Infan- | dum rē- | gīna iu- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.

Illī⁵ in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | braccia | tollunt. Verg.⁶




¹ This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman meters. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Vergil and Ovid.

² The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. Some authorities, however, treat the verse as Catalectic, and mark the last foot ∠ ∪ ∪.

³ In this scheme the sign ∠ marks the ictus (724), and ∠ ∪ ∪ denotes that the original Dactyl, marked ∠ ∪ ∪, may become by contraction a Spondee, marked ∠ ∪, i.e. that a Spondee may be used for a Dactyl (722).

⁴ Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:



The notation  means that, instead of the original measure , the equivalent  may be used.

⁵ The final I of illi is elided; see 733, 1.

⁶ With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline of Longfellow:

1. The scheme of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.

2. **Effect of Dactyls.** — Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.

3. **Spondaic Line.** — The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot :

Cāra de- | um subō- | lēs mag- | nam Iovis | incēp- | mentum. Verg.

NOTE. — In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets,¹ and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in *incrēmentum* above.

736. Caesura, or Caesural Pause. — The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is *after the thesis* or *in the arsis* of the third foot² :

Armā- | ti ten- | dunt ; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. Verg.

Infan- | dum, rē- | gina, || iu- | bē. reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.

NOTE. — In the first line the caesural pause, marked ||, is after *tendunt*, after the thesis of the third foot ; and in the second line, after *rēgina*, in the arsis of the third foot. A caesura after the thesis of a foot is termed a Masculine caesura, while a caesura in the middle of the arsis is termed a Feminine caesura.³

1. The Caesural Pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second :

Crēdide- | rim ; || vēr | illud e- | rat, || vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. **Bucolic Diaeresis.** — A pause called the Bucolic Diaeresis, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot :

This is the forest primeval ; but where are the hearts that beneath it

Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman ?

¹ A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.

² That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required ; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense.

³ The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong or the Syllabic Caesura ; the Feminine, the Weak or the Trochaic Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the thesis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral ; after the thesis of the third, Penthemimeral ; after the thesis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.

Ingen- | tem cae- | lō soni- | tum dedit; || inde se- | cūsus. Verg.

NOTE. — The Bucolic Diaeresis, or Caesura, though often employed by Juvenal, was in general avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his *Bucolics*, uses it very sparingly.

3. A diaeresis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse :

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quis furit; || omnēs | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause :

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō, || Trō- | iae qui | primus ab | ōris. Verg.

NOTE. — Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these — that after *canō*, in the third foot — has the caesural pause.

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme :

Rōmae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armls. Enn.

NOTE 1. — The Penthemimeral caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as in 4 above.

NOTE 2. — A happy effect is often produced by combining the Hephthemimeral caesura with the Trihemimeral :

Inde tō- | rō || pater | Aenē- | ās || sic | ōrsus ab | altō. Verg.

737. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables, especially in the third foot, but in the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 735.

738. The last word of the hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable.

NOTE 1. — Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect :

Præcipi- | tant cū- | rae, || tur- | bātaque | fūnere | mēns est. Verg.

NOTE 2. — In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (729, note 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final *em* or *um* before the initial vowel of the next line; see *Aen.* 1, 332; *Geor.* 1, 295.

Other Dactylic Verses

739. Dactylic Pentameter.¹—The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two Dactylic Trimeters—the first syncopated or catalectic, the second catalectic—separated by a diaeresis. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 || 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢, or
 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 || 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢 | 𐎠𐎢𐎡𐎢²
Admoni- | **tū** coe- | **pī** || **fortior** | **esse** tu- | **ō**. Ovid.

1. **Elegiac Distich.**—The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise- | pulta vi- | run || cur- | vis feri- | untur a- | ratris
Ossa, ru- | Inō- | sās || ocenlit | herba do- | mās. Oeld.

NOTE. — Elegiac composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of meter, and the sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid and Tibullus furnish us the best specimens of this style of composition.

2. The Dactylic Tetrameter is identical with the last four feet of the hexameter :

Ībimus | ō soci- | i, comi- | tēsque, Hor

NOTE. — In compound verses, as in the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other meters has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 745. 10.

3. The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic, also known as the Lesser Archilochian, is identical with the second half of the dactylic pentameter:

Arbori- | busque c. | mae. flor

¹ The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyls or Spondees, the third a Spondee, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

² In musical characters:

Thus in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure; see 729. 3.

Trochaic Verse

740. The Trochaic Dipody, the unit of measure in trochaic verse, consists of two trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (**720, 4**), i.e. it sometimes has the form of a Spondee with the time of a Trochee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second:

∠ ∪ ∠ ∷ or ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪

NOTE 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents a Tribrach ∪ ∪ ∪ may take the place of the Trochee ∠ ∪, and an apparent Anapaest ∪ ∪ > the place of the irrational Trochee ∠ >.¹ In proper names a cyclic Dactyl ∠ ∪ ∪ or ∠ ∷ (**723, 3**) may occur in either foot.

NOTE 2.—In Dactylic verse the unit of measure is a foot, but in Trochaic, iambic, and Anapaestic verses it is a Dipody, or pair of feet.

NOTE 3.—A syllable called Anacrusis (*upward beat*) is sometimes prefixed to a trochaic verse. It is separated from the following measure by the mark ; .

741. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scheme:

∠ ∪ — ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∷
Aula dīvi | tem manet. Hor

NOTE.—A Trochaic Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see **745, 10**

1. The Alcæic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcæic stanza is a Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis:

∷ : ∠ ∪ — ∷ | ∠ ∪ — ∷
Pu- ; er quis ex au- | lā capillis. Hor.

2. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic, or Septenarius, consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot, and in the best poets the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

∠ ∪ — ∷ | ∠ ∪ — ∷ || ∠ ∪ — ∷ | ∠ ∪ ∷ ^ 2
Crās amet qui | númqu^{am} amāvit || quíqu^e amāvit | crās amet. Pervig Ven.

¹ Thus in the second foot of a trochaic dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time, approximately, as the Trochee or the Tribrach.

² Only the leading ictus of each dipody is here marked.

NOTE 1. — This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diaeresis.¹

NOTE 2. — In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great license in the use of feet. In Plautus and Terence the tribrach $\cup \cup \cup$ is admitted in any foot except the last, and the irrational trochee $\angle >$, cyclic dactyl $\angle \cup \cup$ or $\angle \cup$, and the apparent anapaest $\cup \cup >$ may occur in any foot except the last two. Plautus admits the proceleusmatic $\cup \cup \cup$ in the first foot. Later writers, as Varro, Seneca, and the author of *Pervigilium Veneris*, conform much more strictly to the normal scheme.

3. The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic, or Octonarius, consists of four complete Trochaic Dipodies, with a diaeresis at the end of the second dipody:

$\angle \cup - \angle \cup - \angle \cup - \angle \cup \parallel \angle \cup - \angle \cup - \angle \cup - \angle \cup$

Ipse sannis | saxis fixus || asperis ē- | viscerātus. Enn

NOTE. — This verse in Latin is used chiefly in the early comedy, where it admits great license in the use of feet. In Plautus and Terence the tribrach, irrational trochee, cyclic dactyl, and apparent anapaest may occur in any foot except the last, and any of them, except the cyclic dactyl, may occur in the last foot.

Iambic Verse

742. The Iambic Dipody, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two iambs, the first of which has a heavier ictus than the second and is sometimes irrational (720, 4):

$\angle \cup \cup \angle$ or ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪

743. 1. The Iambic Trimeter, also called Senarius, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

$\angle \cup \cup - | \angle \cup \cup - | \angle \cup \cup \cup ^2$

Quid obserā- | tis || auribus | fundis precēs? Hor.

Hās inter epu- | lās || ut iuvat | pāstās ovēs. Hor.³

¹ Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines:

Lives' of great men | all' remind us
We' can make our | lives' sublime,
And', departing, | leave' behind us
Foot'prints on the | sands' of time.

² This same scheme, divided thus, $\angle : \angle \cup - \angle | \angle \cup - \angle | \angle \cup - \wedge$, represents Trochaic Trimeter Catalectic with Anacrusis. Thus all Iambic verses may be treated as trochaic verses with Anacrusis.

³ Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza:

When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.

NOTE 1. — In Proper Names a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.

NOTE 2. — In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spondee; their equivalents, the tribrach, the dactyl, and the anapaest, are used very sparingly.

NOTE 3. — In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the tribrach $\cup \cup \cup$, irrational iambus $> \angle$, apparent dactyl $> \cup \cup$, cyclic anapaest $\cup \swarrow$ or $\cup \angle$, and proceleusmatic $\cup \cup \cup$ are admitted in any foot except the last.

NOTE 4. — The Choliambus is a variety of Iambic Trimeter with a Trochee in the sixth foot¹:

Miser Catul- | le dēsīnās | ineptīre. Catul.

2. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic occurs in Horace with the following scheme:

$\angle \cup \cup - | \angle \cup \cup - | \cup \angle \cup$

Vocātus at- | que nōn vocā- | tus audit. Hor.

NOTE. — The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

3. The Iambic Dimeter consists of two Iambic Dipodies

$\angle \cup \cup - | \angle \cup \cup \cup$

Queruntur in | silvis avēs. Hor.

Ast ego vicis- | sim rīserō. Hor.

NOTE 1. — Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

NOTE 2. — The Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

4. The Iambic Tetrameter consists of four Iambic Dipodies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellēx- | i modo senis || sententiam | dē nūptiis. Ter.

NOTE 1. — The Iambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:

Quot commodās | rēs attuli? || quot autem adē- | mi cūrās. Ter.

NOTE 2. — Plautus and Terence admit the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter (743, note 3).

¹ Choliambus, or Seazon, means *lame* or *limping Iambus*, and is so called from its limping movement. It is also explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (733, 7) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus: $\cup : \angle \cup \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup$.

Ionic Verse

744. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

$\cup \cup \angle _ | \cup \cup \angle _ | \cup \cup \angle _$
 $\cup \cup \angle _ | \cup \cup \angle _$

Neque pūgnō | neque sēgnī | pede victus ;
 Catus idem | per apertam. Hor

NOTE 1. — In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position. Thus *us* in *victus* is long before *c* in *catus*.

NOTE 2. — The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadean Verse, occurs chiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:

$\angle _ \cup \cup | \angle _ \cup \cup | \angle \times \cup \cup | \angle \times \times$

Hās cum gemi- | nā compede | dēdicat ca- | tēnās. Mart.

Logaoedic Verse

745. Logaoedic¹ Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee $\angle >$, the Cyclic Dactyl $\angle \cup \cup$ or $\angle \cup _$, and the Syncopated Trochee $_$ (733, 7) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.² The following varieties of Logaoedic verses appear in Horace:


1. The Adonic.

$\cup \cup | \angle _$ or 

Montis i- | māgō. Hor

NOTE. — Some scholars regard the Adonic as a tripod with the following scheme: $\angle \cup \cup | \angle _ | \angle _$.

2. The Aristophanic or the First Pherecratic³:

$\angle \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup | \angle _$ or 

Cūr neque | milli- | tāris. Hor.

¹ From *λόγος*, *prose*, and *ἀοιδή*, *song*, applied to verses which resemble prose.

² The free use of long syllables in the Arsis causes the poetical ictus on the Thesis to appear less prominent.

³ Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic	$\angle \cup \cup \angle \cup \cup _ \angle$
First Glyconic	$\angle \cup \cup \angle \cup \cup \cup _$
Asclepiadean	$\angle > \angle \cup \cup \angle \angle \cup \cup \angle \cup _$

NOTE 1. — The scheme of the Aristophanic is sometimes written thus:

⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ |


NOTE 2. — Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logaoedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecratic, according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be Acatalectic or Catalectic:

First. ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ or catalectic ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵

Second. ⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ or catalectic ⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵

In Logaoedic verse the term Basis or Base, marked \times , is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot $\text{—} >$ is the base.

3. The Second Glyconic¹ Catalectic:

⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ or 

Dōnec | grātus e- | ram ti- | bī. Hor.

NOTE 1. — Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logaoedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic, according as its dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

NOTE 2. — The Second Glyconic sometimes has Syncope in the third foot.

4. The Lesser Asclepiadean¹ consists of a syncopated Second Pherecratic and a catalectic First Pherecratic:

⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ || ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵

Maccē- | nās ata | vīs | ēdite | rēgi- | bus. Hor.

5. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of a syncopated Second Pherecratic, a syncopated Adonic, and a catalectic First Pherecratic:

⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ || ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵

Seu plā- | rēs hic- | mēs, || seu tribu- | it || Iuppiter | ul- | ti- | mam. Hor.

6. The Lesser Sapphic is a logaoedic pentapody with the dactyl in the third foot:

⤵ | ⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵

Namque | mē sil- | vā lupus | in Sa- | binā. Hor.

7. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Glyconics, — a Third and a catalectic First. — with Syncope in each:

⤵ | ⤵ > | ⤵ | ⤵ || ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵ | ⤵

Inter | aequā- | lēs equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pā- | tīs. Hor.

¹ See p. 385, footnote 3.

8. The Lesser Alcaic is a logaoedic Tetrapody with dactyls in the first two feet:

$\text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup$
 Purpure- | ð vari- | us co- | lôre. Hor.

9. The Greater Alcaic is a catalectic logaoedic Pentapody with anacrusis and with the dactyl in the third foot:

$\text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \wedge$
 Vi- | dē. ut | altā | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

10. The Greater Archilochian consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (739, 2) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either dactyls or spondees; the fourth, a dactyl; and the last three, trochees:

$\text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \parallel \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup$
 Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nōs vetat, || inco- | hāre | longam. Hor.

NOTE 1. — This verse may be explained either as Logaoedic or as Compound. With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 727, note 3.

NOTE 2. — The Phalæcean, not found in Horace, is a Logaoedic Pentapody, with the dactyl in the second foot:

$\text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup$
 Nōn est | vivere, | sed va- | lēre | vita. Mart.

NOTE 3. — The Second Priapean, not found in Horace, consists of a synopated Second Glyconic and a catalectic Second with Syncope:

$\text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \mid \text{—} \wedge$
 Quercus | ārida | rūsti- | cā || cōnfōr- | māta se | cū- | ri. Catul.

Compound Meters

746. The following compound meters occur in Horace:

1. The Iambelegus consists of an Iambic Dimeter and a catalectic Dactylic Trimeter:

$\text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \parallel \text{—} \cup \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \cup \cup \cup \mid \text{—} \wedge$
 Redūcet in | sēdem vice. || Nunc et A- | chaemeni- | ð.

NOTE. — This verse occurs only in the thirteenth epode of Horace, where it is sometimes treated as two verses.

2. The Elegiambus consists of a catalectic Dactylic Trimeter and an Iambic Dimeter:

$\angle \cup \cup \mid \angle \cup \cup \mid \angle \times \parallel \angle \cup \cup \mid \angle \cup \cup \mid$
 Scribere versicu- | lōs, || amōre per- | cussum gravi.

NOTE. — This verse occurs only in the eleventh epode of Horace, where it is sometimes treated as two verses.

VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS

747. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his *Metamorphoses*, and the Elegiac Distich in his *Epistles* and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his *Epistles* and *Satires*, and a variety of lyric meters in his *Odes* and *Epodes*, as follows:

1. **Alcaic Stanza, Tetrastich.** — First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (745, 9); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (741, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (745, 8). Found in thirty-seven Odes: I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV. 4, 9, 14, 15.

2. **Sapphic Stanza, Tetrastich.** — The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (745, 6); the fourth, Adonic (745, 1). Found in twenty-six Odes: I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, 11; and in Secular Hymn.

NOTE. — The last foot of the third line is generally a spondee.

3. **Greater Sapphic Stanza, Distich.** — First line, First Glyconic, Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (733, 7); second line, Greater Sapphic (745, 7). Found in Ode I. 8.

4. **First Asclepiadean Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3); second, Lesser Asclepiadean (745, 4). Found in twelve Odes: I. 3, 13, 19, 36; III. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV. 1, 3.

5. **Second Asclepiadean Stanza, Tetrastich.** — The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (745, 4); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3). Found in nine Odes: I. 6, 15, 24, 33; II. 12; III. 10, 16; IV. 5, 12.

6. **Third Asclepiadean Stanza, Tetrastich.** — The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (745, 4); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (745, 3, note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (745, 3). Found in seven Odes: I. 5, 14, 21, 23; III. 7, 13; IV. 13.

7. The Lesser Asclepiadean Meter is found in three Odes: I. 1; III. 30; IV. 8.

8. The Greater Asclepiadean Meter is found in three Odes: I. 11, 18; IV. 10.

9. **Alcmanian Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Dactylic Hexameter (735); second, Dactylic Tetrameter (739, 2). Found in Odes: I. 7, 28; and in Epode 12.

10. **First Archilochian Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Lesser Archilochian (739, 3). Found in Ode IV. 7.

11. **Second Archilochian Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Tetrameter (746, 1). Found in Epode 13.

12. **Third Archilochian Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Elegiac Tetrameter (746, 2). Found in Epode 11.

13. **Fourth Archilochian Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Greater Archilochian (745, 10); second, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (743, 2). Found in Ode I. 4.

NOTE. — The second line is sometimes read with *s, ncpe*, as follows:

Σ : — ∪ — Σ | — ∪ — ∪ | ∪ | ∪ ∆

14. **Trochaic Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (741); second, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (743, 2). Found in Ode II. 18.

15. **Iambic Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter. Found in the first ten Epodes.

16. **First Pythiambic Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (743, 3). Found in Epodes 14 and 15.

17. **Second Pythiambic Stanza, Distich.** — First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter. Found in Epode 16.

18. Iambic Trimeter is found in Epode 17.

19. The Ionic Stanza is found in Ode III. 12. It consists of ten Lesser Ionic feet, variously arranged by editors. It is perhaps best treated as two Dimeters followed by two Trimeters.

Early Latin Rhythms

748. 1. Certain religious formulas, *carmina*, which have been preserved among the earliest remains of the Latin language, are believed to show a rhythmical structure mainly accentual. Each rhythmic series appears to contain four theses. An arsis is often suppressed, and in that case a thesis is protracted to compensate for the omission. An example of these *carmina* is Cato, *De Re Rustica*, 132:

Iūppiter Dapālis | quōd tibi fīerī | opōrtet in dōmō |
familiā meā | cūsignam vñi dāpī, etc.

NOTE. — These *carmina* are chiefly prayers, imprecations, and sacred songs.

Saturnian Verse

2. The Saturnian verse is employed in some of the earliest remains of Latin literature, but its nature is still in dispute. According to one theory it is purely accentual, with trochaic rhythm. The verse is divided into two halves by a diaeresis. The first half verse has three theses; the second usually three, but sometimes only two, and in the latter case it is usually preceded by an anacrusis:

Dábunt málum Metélli || Naévió poétae.

Príma incédit Céreis || Prosérpina púer. Naevius.

NOTE 1.—In the early specimens of this meter hiatus is common, but in the later literary Saturnians it occurs chiefly at the diaeresis.

NOTE 2.—There is usually one unaccented syllable between every two accented syllables, but in the literary Saturnians there are regularly *two* unaccented syllables between the second and third theses.

3. According to the quantitative theory held by some scholars, the Saturnian is a trochaic verse of six feet, with anacrusis. Each thesis may be a long syllable or two shorts; each arsis may be a long syllable, two shorts, or a single short. A short final syllable is often lengthened under the ictus, and an arsis is frequently suppressed:

Dabúnt malúm Metélli || Naévió poétae.

Noetú Troiád exíbant || cápítibús opértis; Naevius.

NOTE 1.—The principal pause is usually after the fourth arsis, but sometimes after the third thesis. Hiatus is common, but, in strictly constructed Saturnians, occurs chiefly at the end of the first rhythmic series.

NOTE 2.—There are many modified forms of both the accentual and quantitative theories of the Saturnian.

APPENDIX

HIDDEN QUANTITY

749. On the natural quantity¹ of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, observe

1. That vowels are long before **rs**, **nf**, **gn**,² and before the inceptive endings **scō** and **scor** :

Cōnsciūs, cōsul, inscribō, insula, amāns, audiēns ; cōnferō, cōficiō, infēlix, inferō ; benignus, māgnus, māgna, rēgnum ; gelāscō, florēscō, silēscō, cōcupiscō, sciscō ; adipiscor.

¹ It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late received special attention from orthoepists. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the modern languages, (5) the comic poets, and (6) etymology.

Valuable information on the subject of hidden quantity will be found in the following works :

STOLZ, FR., *Lautlehre und Stammbildungslehre, historische Grammatik der lateinischen Sprache, Erste Band.* Leipzig, 1895.

BRUGMANN, K., *Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik.* Strassburg, 1888-93.

OSTHOFF, H., *Zur Geschichte des Perfects im Indogermanischen.* Strassburg, 1884.

MARX, A., *Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben.* 2te Auflage, Berlin, 1889.

SEELMANN, E., *Die Aussprache des Latein.* Heilbronn, 1885.

CHRISTIANSEN, J., *De Apicibus et I longis.* Husumensen, 1889.

ROERSTER, W., *Bestimmung der lateinischen Quantität aus dem Romanischen.* Rheinisches Museum, XXXIII. Frankfurt am Main.

GRÖBER, G., *Vulgärlateinische Substrate romanischer Wörter*, *Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik*; I-VI. Leipzig.

KÖRTING, G., *Lateinisch-romanisches Wörterbuch.* Paderborn, 1891.

LINDSAY, W. M., *The Latin Language.* Oxford, 1894.

² On the direct testimony of Priscian, confirmed by inscriptions, all vowels are long before the endings **gnus**, **gna**, **gnum**; and in view of the very large number of words, simple and compound, primitive and derivative, which have these

NOTE 1. — Some scholars think that vowels are also long before **gn**, as they are known to be long in **sēgmen**, **sēgmentum**, **pīgmentum**, etc.

NOTE 2. — Some think that vowels before **scō**, **scor** are long only when they represent long vowels in the primitives.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs or are the result of contraction are long:

Existimō, **amāssō**, **audissem**, **mālle**, **mālle**, **nōlle**, **nōlle**, **ūllus**, **nūllus**; **hōrsum** (***ho**-**vorsum**), **istōrsum** (***isto**-**vorsum**), **quōrsum** (***quo**-**vorsum**), **rūsus** (***re**-**vorsum**), **sūrsum** (***sub**-**vorsum**).

III. That the long vowels of primitives are retained in derivatives:

Crās-tinus, **fās-tus**, **flōs-culus**, **iūs-tus**, **iūs-titia**, **mātri-monium**, **ōs-culum**, **palūs-ter**, **rās-trum**, **rōs-trum**, **rūs-ticus**.

IV. That compounds retain the long vowels of their members:

Dē-dūxi, **dē-rēctus**, **ex-āctus**, **di-stinguō**, **frātri-cida**, **mātri-cida**, **vēn-dō**, **intrōrsum** (***intrō**-**vorsum**), **prōrsus**, **prōrsum** (***prō**-**vorsum**, ***prō**-**vorsum**).

V. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative singular of nouns and adjectives which increase long in the Genitive:

Lēx, **lūx**, **pāx**, **plēbs**, **rēx**, **vōx**.

VI. In verbs the long stem vowel of the Present is retained in all the principal parts:

ardeō	ardēre	ārsi	ārsus
cōmō	cōmere	cōmpsi	cōmptum
figō	figere	fixi	fixum
nūbō	nūbere	nūpsi	nūptum
pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum
scribō	scribere	scripsi	scriptum
sūmō	sūmere	sūmpsi	sūmptum
vivō	vivere	vixi	victum

1. Note the following exceptions:

dīcō	dīcere	dīxi	dictum
dūcō	dūcere	dūxi	ductum
cēdō	cēdere	cessi	cessum
ūrō	ūrere	ussi	ūstum

endings, and also in view of the fact that still other words are known to have long vowels before **gn**, I concur in the view of those eminent orthoepists who think it safe to treat all vowels as long before **gn**. The practical advantage of uniformity in the treatment of vowels in this situation is too obvious to need remark.

VII. In the following verbs the short stem vowel of the Present is lengthened in the Perfect and in the Supine or Perfect Participle :

agō	agere	ēgi	āctum
cingō	cingere	cinxi	cinctum
dē-linguō	dēlinquere	dēliqui	dēlictum ¹
dī-stinguō	dīstinguere	dīstinxi	dīstinctum ²
emō	emere	ēmi	ēptum
figō	figere	finxi	fictum
frangō	frangere	frēgi	frāctum
fruo	frui	fr̄ctus sum	
fungo	fungi	fūctus sum	
iungō	iungere	iūnxi	iūctum
legō	legere	lēgi	lēctum
neglegō	neglegere	neglēxi	neglēctum
pingō	pingere	pīnxi	pīctum
regō	regere	rēxi	rēctum
sancio	sancire	sānxi	sānctum
struo	struere	strūxi	strūctum
tego	tegere	tēxi	tēctum
tingō, tinguō	tingere	tīnxi	tīnctum
trahō	trahere	trāxi	trāctum
ungō	ungere	ū i	ūctum

note the long vowel in the Supine or Perfect Participle of the verbs :

pangō	pangere	pepigi	pāctum
pungō	pungere	pupugi	pūctum
tangō	tangere	tetigi	tāctum

VIII. Long vowels with hidden quantity are found in the following words and in their derivatives :

A	Arginūssae	Bovillae	cicēus	cribrum
āctūtum	āthla	bovillus	Cincius	crispus
Africus	āthletēs	būstum	clātri	Crispinus ²
Alcēstis	ātrium	Būthrōtum	Clytēmnēstra	crūsta
Alēctō	āxilla		Cnōssus	crūstum
aliptēs		C	coniūnx	cucullus
Amāzōn		candēlabrum	cōntiō	cūstōs
anguilla	bārdus	catēlla	corōlla	
Aquillius	Bēdriacum	catillus	crābrō	D
arātrum	bēstia	cētra	crāstinus	dēlūbrum
ārdeliō	bilibris	chirūrgus	Crēssa	deūnx
ārdeō	bimēstris	cicātrix	Crēssius	dēxtāns

¹ So also re-linguō.

² So ex-stinguō and re-stinguō.

Diēspiter	infēstus	miscēō	Permēssus	rōstrum
discribō	infōrmis	Mōstellāria	Phoenissa	Rōxānē
dispiciō	inlūstris	mūcro	pictor	rūctō
distinguō	instillō	mūsculus	pigmentum	rūsticus
dīstō	instinctus (ūs)	mūscus	pistor	
distringō	involūcrum	mūstēla	pīstrinum	S
dōdrāns	lōcus		plēbs	Sārsina
dolābra	iūglāns	N	plēctrum	scēptrum
	iūrgō	Nārnia	plōstellum	sēgmen
E	iūstus	nārō	Pōlliō	sēgmentum
ēbrius	iūstinus	nāsturtium	Polymēstor	sēmēstris
ēnōrmis	iūxtā	nefastus	pōsca	sēmūncia
epidicticus		nōndum	prāgmaticus	septūnx
ēscā	L	nōngenti	Prāxitelēs	sēscenti
ēsculentus	lābrum (<i>basin</i>)	nōnne	prēndō	Sesōstris
Esquiliae	lāmna	Nōrba	primōrdium	sēsqui
Etrūscus	lārdum	nōrma	princeps	sēstertius
exōrdium	Lārs	nūllus	priscus	Sēstius
exōstra	Lārva	nūndinae	pristinus	Sēstos
F	lātrina	nūntiō	prōcinctus (ūs)	simulācrum
favilla	lātrō	nūntius	prōcrāstinō	sineput
fēstus	lavābrum	nūptiae	Procrūstēs	sistrum
firmus	lavācrum	nūsquam	profēstus	sōbrius
flābrum	lēmna	nūtriō	prōmīscuus	Sōcrates
fōrma	lēmnuiscus	nūtrix	prōmptus (ūs)	sōlstitium
frūctus (ūs)	Lēmnos		prōsperus	sōspes
frūstrā	lentiscus	O	prōstibulum	sōspita
frūstum	libra	Oenōtria	Pūblica	stilla
fūrtum	lictor	ōlla	pūblicus	strūctor
fūstis	lūbricus	ōrea	Pūblius	sublūstris
G	lūctus (ūs)	orchēstra	pūvillus	suillus
geōgraphia	lūstrum (<i>expi-</i>	ōrdior	pūrgō	sūmptus (ūs)
geōrgicus	<i>ation</i>)	ōrdō	pūstula	sūrculus
glōssūrium	lūstrō	ōrnō		Sūtrium
glōssēma	lūxus (ūs)	ōscen	Q	T
gryps	lūxuria	ōscitō	quārtus	tāctus (ūs)
	Lycūrgus	ōsculum	quīntilis	Tartēssus
H	M	ōsculor	quīncūx	tāxillus
Hērculāneum	Mānlius	Ōstia	quīnquātrūs	Tecmēssa
hibiscum	Mārcellus	ōstium	quīnque	tēctum
hillae	Mārcus	ovillus	quīndecim	Telmēssus
hireus	Mārs	Ōxus	quīntus	Tēmnos
hīrsūtus	Mārsi	P	Quīntiliānus	theātrum
hīrtus	Mārtialis	palimpsēstus		Thrēssa
HisPELLUM	māxilla	palister	R	trāctō
hōrnus	māximus	pāstillus	rāstrum	tristis
Hymēttus	mercēnārius	pāstor	reāpse	
	Mētrōdōrus	pāstus (ūs)	rēctus	U
I	mētrōpolis	pāxillus	rixa	ūllus
iētāculum	mille	pēgma	rixor	ūlna
Illyria	mīlvus	periclitōr	rōscidus	ūncia
			Rōscius	

ūnctiō	ūstrina	vāstō	vēndō	victus (ūs)
ūndecim	ūsūrpō	vāstus	vērnus	villa
ūrtica		Vēctis	vēstibulum	villum
ūspiam	ŷ	vēgrandis	vēstīgium	vindēmia
ūsquam	vāllum	Vēlābrum	Vēstini	Vipsānius
ūsq̄ue	vāsculum	Venāfrum	vēxillum	vīscus

IX. That vowels are generally short before **nt** and **nd** :

Amant, amantis, monent, monentis, prūdentis, prudentia, amandus, monendus, regendus.

NOTE 1. — A few exceptions will be found in the list given above ; see VIII.

NOTE 2. — Greek words also furnish a few exceptions.

X. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

FIGURES OF SPEECH

750. The principal Figures of Etymology are

1. **Aphaeresis**, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word.
2. **Syncope**, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word.
3. **Apocope**, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word.
4. **Epenthesis**, the insertion of one or more letters in a word.
5. **Metathesis**, the transposition of letters.
6. See also Figures of Prosody, **733**.

751. The principal Figures of Syntax are

1. **Ellipsis**, the omission of one or more words of a sentence :

Habitābat ad Iovis (sc. templum), *he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter* ; Liv. 1, 41.

NOTE 1. — Aposiopesis is an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished :

Quōs ego . . . sed mōtōs praeſtat compōnere fluctūs, *whom I . . . but it is better to calm the troubled waves* ; V. 1, 135.

NOTE 2. — For Asyndeton, see **657**, 6.

2. **Brachylogy**, a concise and abridged form of expression :

Nostri Graecē nesciunt nec Graeci Latīnē, *our people do not know Greek, and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin* ; C. Tusc. 5, 40, 116.

NOTE. — Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one :

Ducēs plectāsque exūre carinās, *slay the leaders and burn the painted*
V. 7, 431.

3. **Pleonasm** is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression :

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus exire possent, *there were two ways by which ways they might depart* ; Caes. 1, 6.

NOTE 1. — **Hendiadys** is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective and a genitive :

Quālem pateris libāmus et aurō (= pateris aureis), *such as we offer from golden bowls* ; V. G. 2, 192.

NOTE 2. — For Anaphora, see 666, 1.

4. **Enallage** is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another :

Populus lātē rēx (= rēgnāns), *a people of extensive sway* (ruling extensively) ; V. 1, 21. Sērus (sērō) in caelum redeās, *may you return late to heaven* ; II. 1, 2, 45.

NOTE. — For Prolepsis or Anticipation, see 493 ; for Synesis, see 389 ; and for Attraction, see 396, 2 ; 399, 5.

5. **Hyperbaton** is a transposition of words or clauses :

Viget et vivit animus, *the soul is vigorous and alive* ; C. Div. 1, 30, 63.

NOTE. — For Chiasmus, see 666, 2.

752. Figures of Rhetoric comprise several varieties. The following are the most important :

1. A **Simile** is a direct comparison :

Imāgō pār levibus ventis volucrique simillima somnō, *the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream* ; V. 6, 701.

2. **Metaphor** is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another :

Rei publicae naufragium, *the shipwreck of the republic* ; C. Sest. 6, 15.

NOTE. — **Allegory** is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, Ode I., 14 : Ō nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.

3. **Metonymy** is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it :

Furit Vulcānus (ignis), *the fire (Vulcan) rages* ; V. 5, 662.

4. **Synecdoche** is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special :

Statiō male fida carinis (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships ; V. 2, 23.

5. **Irony** is the use of a word for its opposite :

Quid ais, bone (male) cūstōs prōvinciæ, what sayest thou, good guardian of the province ? C. Ver. 5, 6, 12.

6. **Climax** (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest :

Āfricānō industria virtūtem, virtūs glōriam, glōria aemulōs comparāvit, industry procured excellence for Africanus, excellence glory, glory rivals ; Ad Her. 4, 25.

7. **Hyperbole** is an exaggeration :

Ventis et fulminis ōcior āllis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning ; V. 5, 319.

8. **Litotes** denies something instead of affirming the opposite :

Nōn ignāra mali, not unacquainted (= far too well acquainted) with misfortune ; V. 1, 630

9. **Personification** or **Prosopopeia** represents inanimate objects as living beings :

Tē patria ōdit ac metuit, your country hates and fears you ; C. C. 1, 7, 17.

10. **Apostrophe** is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons :

Vōs, Albāni tumuli, vōs implorō, I implore you, ye Alban hills ; C. MII. 81.

11. **Euphemism** is the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects :

Si quid mihi hūmānitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me (i.e. if I should die) ; C. Ph. 1, 1, 10.

12. **Oxymoron** is an apparent contradiction :

Absentēs adsunt et egentēs abundant, the absent are present and the needy have an abundance ; C. Ann. 7, 28.

ROMAN LITERATURE

753. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of plays. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B.C. to 550 A.D., and it may be conveniently divided into five periods. The following are a few representative writers of these periods :

1. Early Latin Writers

Plautus	Ennius	Cato	Terence X
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2. Writers of the Ciceronian Age

Cicero	Caesar	<u>Lucretius</u>	Catullus	Sallust X	<u>Nepos</u>
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3. Writers of the Augustan Age

<u>Vergil</u>	<u>Horace</u>	<u>Ovid</u>	Tibullus	Propertius	<u>Livy</u>
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4. Writers of the Silver Age

* Seneca	Curtius	Two Plinies	Quintilian X	Tacitus
Suetonius	Persius	Lucan	<u>Juvenal</u>	<u>Martial</u>

5. Late Latin Writers

Tertullian	Lactantius	Ausonius	Claudian
Eutropius	Macrobius	Boëthius	Priscian

ROMAN CALENDAR

754. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months, but it has the following peculiarities:

I. The days are not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:

1. From the *Calends*, the *first* of each month.

2. From the *Nones*, the *fifth* — but the *seventh* in March, May, July, and October.

3. From the *Ides*, the *thirteenth* — but the *fifteenth* in March, May, July, and October.

II. From these three points the days are numbered, not forward, but backward.

NOTE. — Hence, after the *Ides* of each month, the days are numbered from the *Calends* of the following month.

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before each is denoted by *pridiē Kalendās*, *Nōnās*, etc.; the second before each by *diē tertio* (not *secundo*) *ante Kalendās*, etc.; the third, by *diē quarto*, etc.; and so on through the month.

1. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with *Kalendās*, *Nōnās*, etc.; as *diē quarto ante Nōnās Iānuā-*

riās, often shortened to *quartō ante Nōnās Iān.* or *IV. ante Nōnās Iān.*, or without *ante*, as *IV. Nōnās Iān.*, the second of January.

2. *Ante diēm* is common, instead of *diēs . . ante*; as *ante diēm quartum Nōnās Iān.* for *diēs quartō ante Nōnās Iān.*

3. The expressions *ante diēm Kal.*, etc., *pridīē Kal.*, etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition; as *ex ante diēm V. Idūs Oct.*, from the 11th of Oct.; *ad pridīē Nōnās Māiās*, till the 6th of May.

755.

CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR

Days of the Month	March, May, July, October	January, August, December	April, June, September, November	February.
1	KALENDIS. ¹	KALENDIS	KALENDIS.	KALENDIS.
2	VI. Nōnās. ¹	IV. Nōnās	IV. Nōnās.	IV. Nōnās.
3	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Pridīē Nōnās.	Pridīē Nōnās.	Pridīē Nōnās.
5	III. "	Nōnās.	Nōnās.	Nōnās.
6	Pridīē Nōnās.	VIII. Idūs.	VIII. Idūs.	VIII. Idūs.
7	Nōnās.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Idūs.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "
11	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
12	IV. "	Pridīē Idūs.	Pridīē Idūs.	Pridīē Idūs.
13	III. "	Idūs.	Idūs.	Idūs.
14	Pridīē Idūs.	XIX. Kalend. ²	XVIII. Kalend. ²	XVI. Kalend. ³
15	Idūs.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Kalend. ³	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. (VI.) ³ "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. (V.) "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	III. (IV.) "
28	V. "	V. "	IV. "	Prid. Kal. (II. Kal.)
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	(Prid. Kal.)
30	III. "	III. "	Pridīē Kalend.	
31	Pridīē Kalend.	Pridīē Kalend.		

¹ To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nōnās, Idūs, etc., *ante* is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (754, III. 1).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendās Aprīlēs.

³ The inclosed forms apply to leap year.

NOTE 1. — The table will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date.

NOTE 2. — In leap year the 24th and the 25th of February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, — **VI. Kal. Mārt.** The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only twenty-eight days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of twenty-nine days, — **V., IV., III. Kal. Mārt.,** and **prīdiē Kal. Mārt.**

756. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided into twelve hours.

1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.

2. The hour, being uniformly one twelfth of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

ROMAN MONEY

757. The principal Roman coins were the **ās**, of copper; the **sēstertius**, **quīnārius**, **dēnārius**, of silver; and the **aureus**, of gold. Their value in the Augustan period may be approximately given as follows:

Ās	2 cents
Sēstertius	4 "
Quīnārius	8 "
Dēnārius	16 "
Aureus	\$5.00

1. The **ās** contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished, from time to time, till at last it contained only one twenty-fourth of a pound.

2. In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the **sēstertius**, also called **nummus**.

NOTE 1. — The units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by **sēstertii** with the proper cardinals: **vīginti sēstertii**, 20 sesterces.

NOTE 2. — One thousand sesterces are denoted by **mīle sēstertii** or **mīle sēstertium**.

NOTE 3. — In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either by **mīlia sēstertium** (genitive plural) or by **sēstertia**: **duo mīlia sēstertium** or **bīna sēstertia**.

NOTE 4. — In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, **sēstertium** with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, **decīēs**, **viciēs**, etc.: **decīēs sēstertium**, 1,000,000 (10 × 100,000) sesterces.

758. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors:

A. D. = ante diem.	F. C. = faciendum cūrā-	Proc. = procōsul.
Aed. = aedilis.	vit.	Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quod
A. U. C. = annō urbis	Id. = Idūs.	bonum, felix, faustum-
conditae.	Imp. = imperātor.	que sit.
Cos. = cōsul.	K. (Kal.) = Kalendae.	Quir. = Quirītēs.
Coss. = cōsulēs.	Leg. = lēgātus.	Resp. or R. P. = rēs pū-
D. = divus.	Non. = Nōnae.	blica.
D. D. = dōnō dedit.	O. M. = optimus mǎxi-	S. = senātus.
Des. = dēsīgnātus.	mus.	S. C. = senātus cōsul-
D. M. = diis mǎnibus.	P. C. = patrēs cōscripti.	tum.
D. S. = dē suō.	Pont. Max. = pontifex	S. D. P. = salūtem dicit
D. S. P. P. = dē suā pe-	māximus.	plurinam.
cūniā posuit.	P. R. = populus Rōmā-	S. P. Q. R. = senātus
Eq. Rom. = eques Rō-	nus.	populusque Rōmānus.
mānus.	Pr. = praetor.	Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plē-
F. = filius.	Praef. = praefectus.	bis.

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NOTE.—The numbers refer to sections unless p. (= page) is added. **Adjs.** = adjectives; **advs.** = adverbs; **appos.** = appositive or apposition; **comp.** = compound or composition; **compar.** = comparative or comparison; **compds.** = compounds; **condit.** = condition or conditional; **conj.** = conjugation; **conjunc.** = conjunction; **constr.** = construction; **ff.** = and the following; **gen.** = genitive; **gend.** = gender; **ger.** = gerund; **indir. disc.** = indirect discourse; **instrum.** = instrumental; **loc.** = locative; **pred.** = predicate; **preps.** = prepositions; **prons.** = pronouns; **qualit.** = qualitative; **quant.** = quantity; **seq.** = sequence; **subj.** = subject or subjunctive; **w.** = with.

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